

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 3, 1882.

The Week.

THE President in vetoing the River and Harbor Bill has performed an act which will gain him a good deal of applause, and save to the Republican party a great many votes this fall. His principal objection to the bill is that it contains appropriations "not for the common defence or general welfare, and which do not promote commerce among the States," but, on the contrary, are "entirely for the benefit of the particular localities in which it is proposed to make the improvements," and are consequently "beyond the powers given by the Constitution to Congress and the President." He recommends that "one-half of the aggregate amount provided for in the bill be appropriated for expenditure during the fiscal year, and that the sum so appropriated be expended only for such objects named in the bill as the Secretary of War, under the direction of the President, shall determine; provided, that in no case shall the expenditure for any one purpose exceed the sum now designated by the bill for that purpose." This is exactly what was done in the river and harbor appropriation of the year 1870, and would, of course, leave the actual expenditure entirely in the discretion of the President and the Secretary of War—a result which would kill most of the jobs in the bill, and thus disgust the very men who have been most active in engineering it through Congress. The political effect of the veto will be very wholesome. The most satisfactory thing about it is that for two years it will probably stop such scandalous jobbery as the River and Harbor Bill has come to involve. The log-rollers in Congress have received a plain notification from the White House that they must count on its disapproval of this sort of legislation when it reaches the proportions of a "steal." While the present Administration remains in power they will be obliged to exercise some forethought as to what sort of internal improvements the President will probably sanction, and to refrain from piling up appropriations, under the idea that they will thereby create a pressure which he cannot resist. This is a decided gain to the public, and the President deserves all the gratitude he is likely to get for the firmness he has shown.

The more the Attorney-General's opinion on the construction of the anti-assessment statute is examined, the more open does it appear to be to very serious criticism. The *Herald* points out that Congress in a very important statute has treated the word "officer" as embracing both Senators and Representatives. The second article of the Constitution empowers Congress to declare what "officer" shall act as President in case of a vacancy. The act of Congress now in force designates the President of the Senate or the Speaker of the House as the "officer" to take his place. Now, if the word as used in the Constitution—and this is what Mr. Brewster says—includes only executive officers, then the act

of Congress is in excess of the powers conferred by the Constitution, and unconstitutional. No one has ever suggested anything of the sort before, and what it really shows is that the point decided by Mr. Brewster is a very doubtful one, and should have been left by him to the courts to settle. By his opinion he virtually directs the district-attorneys not to prosecute, and he does this by declaring a construction to be perfectly plain when it is obviously doubtful.

The recent letter of Secretary Folger informing the poor clerks and employees of the Government that they might contribute just as freely as they liked to Mr. Hubbell and his blackmailing committee, now turns out, according to the result of researches set on foot by the *Times*, to have been a "put-up job." The letter was addressed to "A. Thomas, chief of a division, Second Comptroller's Office, Treasury Department," and, according to the *Times*, there is no such person in existence. The beauty of the discovery lies in the fact that this "A. Thomas" was addressed by Mr. Folger as one of a class of employees longing to contribute and restrained only by fear of the law. That such shifts as this should be resorted to by the Administration shows how little it understands the general feeling with regard to assessments. The only effect of its ingenious excuses for conniving at the practice is to deepen the disgust of the public, and to fasten upon itself a large share of the responsibility for an abuse which it pretends to disown.

The House Foreign-Relations Committee has drawn up its report on the Chili-Peru scandal. It says that as to the missing documents, "their loss suggests the propriety of greater caution on the part of those having such papers in charge," and moreover they have, with one exception, been replaced by correct copies. As to Mr. Morton's contract, "the Committee are clearly of the opinion that Mr. Morton has done nothing, and at no time had he the remotest intention of doing anything, which could compromise the honorable discharge of his official duties"; but at the same time "the scrupulousness manifested in his interview with Mr. Randall would have been sustained beyond possible contingency by his prohibition to his firm to have anything to do with this contract upon his first knowledge of the negotiations in regard thereto"—which, whether as a criticism or as an exoneration, is equally meaningless. Of course they are as bold as lions about Shipherd, and roundly denounce his impudent attempt to corrupt our Minister to Peru, Mr. Hurlbut. With regard to Senator Blair, they say they have nothing to do with him except as a witness, but still his testimony "causes them in no way to modify the opinion already expressed, that public officials cannot guard too scrupulously against engaging in enterprises where their private interests are, or may be, brought in direct conflict with their public duties." With this, Mr. Belmont, who dissents from some of the conclusions of the Committee, has,

we take it, no fault to find. The report throws absolutely no new light on any of the matters discussed in it, and will fall perfectly flat, as the death of Mr. Hurlbut, and the removal of Mr. Blaine from the State Department, took from the inquiry much of the practical interest which it originally had.

It is not too much to say that the testimony of Mr. John A. Walsh in the Star-route cases, more than that of any other witness, has encouraged a public hope for the conviction of the defendants. Evidence before taken was technically important, but Mr. Walsh's brought the crime home to a member of the ring by his own confession. So strong an impression has been made by it that there will be a very general agreement with the Washington *Sunday Herald* in the opinion that some explanation is called for from the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia in regard to its singular indifference to this testimony. As the *Herald* says, "according to Walsh's account, which is corroborated by documentary evidence and attendant circumstances, the Second Assistant Postmaster-General, having coolly attempted to treat a bona-fide loan of \$36,000 as a bribe accepted by him in his official capacity, Walsh, whose sole anxiety, as he claims, was to get his money back and escape from all entanglement with the ring, was compelled to bring suit publicly in the courts." This testimony has been admitted as competent evidence in the case now on trial. Its effect is so important that the defendants' counsel made a determined effort to break the witness down; yet the Grand Jury dismissed the same testimony when given before it as of no value. Certainly that body, "far from vindicating anybody else," should make some effort "to vindicate itself" if possible.

The discussion in the Star-route trials between Judge and counsel over the propriety of punishing some of the Washington newspapers for their attacks on witnesses would have been more fruitful if the powers of the Court to punish for contempt had been made plain. The Star-route organs have been, ever since the trials began, engaged in pouring out a steady stream of abuse upon everybody connected with the prosecution, and lately they have begun to attempt to deter witnesses from coming forward by the foulest vituperation of those who have testified in favor of the Government. Walsh, for instance, whose testimony has been most damaging to the defendants, has been accused of perjury, and the late Postmaster-General disposed of as "lying Tom James." Such publications are, as Mr. Merrick said, obviously intended to frighten other witnesses from giving testimony, and place the Government at a great disadvantage in obtaining witnesses, as men at all sensitive to their reputation must shrink from exposing themselves to such vile abuse. He therefore asked leave to file a motion, to be called up at some future time, against a number of newspaper men connected with the *Critic* and *Capital*, to show cause why they should not be

punished for contempt. Judge Wylie granted the motion, but at the same time suggested that the "Act of 1831" might make it impossible to do anything. This Act is, we suppose, the United States Statute of March 2, 1831 (U. S. R. S., sec. 725), restricting the power of courts to punish for contempt to cases of "the misbehavior of any person in their presence, or so near thereto as to obstruct the administration of justice, the misbehavior of any of the officers of said courts in their official transactions, and the disobedience or resistance by any such officer, or by any party, juror, witness, or other person to any lawful writ, process, order, rule, decree, or command of the said courts." As this statute relates solely to the courts of the United States, and the Star-route trials are being conducted by the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, it is hard to see why its provisions should have any bearing upon the case at all. If the District courts have the common-law power to punish for contempt, Judge Wylie can undoubtedly make the editors and managers of the Star-route organs in Washington suffer, and probably keep them quiet; but if not, the discussion of the matter will reveal the same sort of judicial impotence which rendered the Court's attempts to preserve order during the Guiteau trial so ineffectual.

After granting Mr. Merrick's motion, Mr. Totten, one of the defendants' counsel, in order to offset its effect, called attention to the wicked proceedings of the New York newspapers, and the "scandalous articles and reflections upon the Court itself" appearing in them "from day to day," upon which the Court proceeded to deliver a very funny lecture on the newspapers. It declared that "honest and upright men had ceased to pay any attention to them," and that so far from having any influence upon the Court, "they would be treated with the utmost contempt." As to the New York "dailies," he said, "it would not do to set off one crime against another," but that the New York papers as well as the Washington papers "would be liable to punishment if the charges were true." On the whole, he said, "it seemed impossible to have a fair trial in this country any way, because of the newspapers." Now, it is usual for courts of justice which undertake to discipline offenders to confine themselves to their own jurisdiction, and the jurisdiction of Judge Wylie does not extend beyond the District. Moreover, the idea which he seems to entertain, that general discussion and criticism of state trials in which the public has an important stake—and this is the sort of discussion of the Star-route cases that has been going on, not only in the New York "dailies" but in the wicked newspapers all over the country—is illegal, or, as he says, renders fair trials impossible, is a very singular notion for a lawyer to hold. The policy of the law in this country has been for years to encourage such discussion, as the general condition of the law with regard to contempt clearly shows. In this State, for instance, the Revised Statutes limit the power very much as the United States Statutes do—that is, to actual interference with or resistance to the administration

of justice in court. The power to punish for "constructive" contempts has fallen into disuse or been abolished all over the country, and the only attempt made to revive it in this State was at the instance of the Tweed Ring, when they began to find the criticisms of the newspapers made their position and power insecure.

The Liberal combination in North Carolina is more likely to command sympathy among the Republicans of the Union than the Mahone movement in Virginia. People who are very anxious that there shall be "equal rights," a "free ballot," and a "fair count," and to that end would regard with complacency the breaking up of the Bourbon party, are very unwilling, even for that purpose, to seem to countenance schemes of repudiation. In respect of North Carolina, however, Republican sympathy is not exposed to such a trial. While there is in that State full play for opposition to Bourbon methods, the movement is not handicapped by any objectionable principle or practice. So far as the party platform is concerned, the canvass turns chiefly on the question whether county and township officers shall be elected by the people, but there will enter into it the more general question whether the whole policy of the State shall be controlled by the new and vigorous spirit of the time, or shall be founded on the study of political antiquities. The Liberal party has declared against the prohibition measure, and the declaration certainly will not weaken the party among the Democrats. Many of these, including influential men, have already united with it, eight Democratic newspapers are supporting it, and there is before it a fair prospect of success. The Democratic majority, under the old party lines, was reduced from 17,308 in 1876 to 8,326 in 1880. If, with a vigorous organization offering hospitality to independent Democrats as well as Republicans, this majority should be effaced, the downfall of Bourbonism would be unaccompanied with the prevalence of any bad doctrine such as repudiation.

The Hon. Luke Poland has accepted the Republican nomination for the Second Vermont District, in a speech in which he declares that he shall devote himself, if elected, to seeing that "the raising of funds to carry on the Government" is properly attended to, and to carrying "the results of the war to their ultimate ends and ultimate conclusions, until real freedom, the real right to the ballot, and the real right to participate as citizens in the Government shall be given to every man, black or white." He assured his audience that he knew all about "the severe nature of the duties which devolve upon the position of a Congressman," and the loud and continued applause with which his remarks were received showed that his audience took the same view of them that he does. Mr. Poland is an old man, and in the course of his speech took pains to guard against the suspicion that he might be "partially demented," but we see no evidence of dementia in his remarks. His speech is a model candidate's speech; it commits him to nothing, and shows him to be in the full possession of his mature powers as a politician.

Judge Haight's refusal to issue a writ of mandamus to compel the railroads to receive and carry freight is placed upon grounds which, to say the least, are not clearly stated. The chief reason he assigns for his decision is a distinction between the duties of a railroad, which the State imposes by giving a charter, and its duties as a common carrier. The courts have held that the writ of mandamus will issue to compel a railroad corporation to operate the whole road as one continuous line; to compel the running of passenger trains to the terminus of the road; to compel a corporation to deliver grain at an elevator standing upon the line of the road, consigned to it in bulk; to compel it to run daily trains; to compel the replacement of a track taken up in violation of its charter; to compel it to construct its road across streams so as not to interfere with navigation; to compel it to build a bridge. But the right to become a common carrier, says Judge Haight, "does not pertain to or emanate from the Government," for "every citizen, without grant or license, has the right to carry persons or property from point to point within the State upon such terms or for such compensation as shall be agreed upon."

This is perfectly true, but it is hard to see what bearing it has on the case. Every citizen may become a common carrier if he likes, but he cannot get a charter to operate a railroad except from the State; and this is the only reason he goes to the State for one. His relation to the public, however, is precisely the same, whether he acts under corporate powers obtained from the Legislature or sets up as a common carrier on his own account. In either case the duty he undertakes to perform is a public one. The difference between the two cases is that if he has no charter, the State cannot interfere with him. As a matter of fact, of course, it is usually incorporated companies which act as common carriers, but the case of a private person undertaking to transact such a business, as for instance a stage line, is not by any means unknown. In such a case, if the proprietor were suddenly to stop business, it is very true that no one would think of applying for a mandamus; but the reason of this is that the State has never conferred any authority upon him at all. A railroad exists only by permission of the State, and derives all its powers from the Legislature. If the business of a common carrier is so private that the courts have no power to compel any corporation which assumes it to receive and carry freight, how is it that they have power to compel a railroad to operate a continuous line, or run passenger trains to the terminus, or to run daily trains? This is all part of the general business of carrying, and if mandamus applies in one case, why should it not apply in all?

The movement of Mr. James E. Kelly, who is described as "the veteran bookmaker," to have Mr. Francis T. Walton, well known as "the plunger," ruled off the grounds and premises controlled by the Racing Association of America has many points of analogy with that taken by the enemies of Mr. Hutchinson, who was recently expelled from mem-

bership of the Stock Exchange. Both were accused of violating the rules of the game. Both belonged to associations not incorporated by the Legislature—associations of a voluntary sort entirely, membership of which was nevertheless valuable in dollars and cents, and therefore held by good lawyers to be under the protection of the courts. The analogy goes somewhat further, for whereas Mr. Hutchinson considers the loss of his seat (valued at \$30,000) a trifle compared with the injury done to his reputation, so Mr. Kelly has presented to Mr. Walton a vivid but ineffectual picture of the disgrace he must suffer if he should be ruled off the race-tracks of the country—ineffectual because Mr. Walton appears to be wholly insensible to the degradation. "Men who were ruled off," said Mr. Kelly with deep solemnity, "always went to the dogs; they were shunned by all their old associates, and cases were known where the wife and children of such a man had refused to recognize him." Mr. Kelly added that he had no personal feeling in the case, but he deemed it a duty for somebody to expose Mr. Walton's practices as a corrupter of jockeys, and he felt that he could afford to undertake the task. The reply of Mr. Walton to this friendly admonition, as recorded by Mr. Kelly, "that he (Walton) proposed to make money," shows how far the hardening process has gone since Mr. Walton returned from the other side of the water, laden with the spoils of the English turf. When the prospect of going to the dogs and being spurned by wife and children is received with a laugh, there is no lower deep for a "plunger" to plunge into.

A circus clown has been telling a St. Louis newspaper that the best days of the circus are over. One of the reasons he gives for thinking so is that, for success in the circus, training must begin early in life, and the societies for the prevention of cruelty to children are so active that they prevent anything of the kind. There may be something in this; but a more serious difficulty, we fancy, is that the part taken in the performance by the clown is much less attractive than it formerly was, owing to the fact that a great deal of the talent which once found its way into this business now goes into journalism, the mental outfit of a really able "funny man" being very much what that of a successful clown used to be. The press makes a business of supplying daily just such jokes as the circus used to provide, and ambitious humorists, who would formerly have worn stripes and spangles in the ring, now entertain the public through a newspaper. The clown proper has consequently run down, because the profession no longer attracts the best humor, as any one may satisfy himself by going and listening to a modern clown trying to make jokes. There is obviously no remedy for this decay, which really gives a new illustration of the wonderful power of the press.

In Wall Street the week has been active, but the changes in prices were not so important as during the week before. The crop news continues to be excellent, the estimates of the

wheat crop running up to 600,000,000 bushels, and the latest indications being that the corn crop will not fall far short of an average yield. All this promises an extraordinary tonnage for the railroads, and lays a foundation for good business for all classes of merchants. There were one or two downward reactions in the stock market, but the investing and speculating public were so confident of higher prices that they continued buyers of stocks, and the demand from them sustained the market. United States bonds were strong for the long issues and lower for the short-date issues, which are to be funded into three per cent. bonds, the applications for the latter having begun on the first day of August. The foreign demand for American securities has been moderate. The banks again reduced their surplus reserve, leaving it at \$5,381,025, but this had little influence, as, on Tuesday, the 1st inst., the Treasury began the disbursement of \$15,000,000 of cash for called bonds, and \$3,500,000 for interest. Exchange on London and the Continent tended downward during the week, and in well-informed quarters the opinion was expressed that, later in the year, gold would be imported. General trade for the autumn is opening well at all the wholesale centres of distribution.

The great event of the week in foreign affairs has been the end of the Anglo-French alliance and, almost simultaneously, of the Conference. The decisive overthrow of the Freycinet Ministry, on the question of a special credit for the defence of the Suez Canal, is a complete abandonment of the common action which the *status quo* in Egypt created by the Financial Control logically called for. The retirement of Russia from the Conference, on the ground that its proper business is exclusively the maintenance of the Canal, gives the finishing stroke to an absurd body which has only served to paralyze England's military operations on the Nile. We shall now hear no more of the "European mandate," nor of volunteer agents to carry it out. The only "Europe" which has any mandates to give is the quadruple concert (so formidable in the eyes of France) of Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia. This Europe is friendly to the preservation of the Canal, and will not object to England's insuring it at her own expense. It is doubtful if the four Powers have any real desire to see the Porte intervene in the Egyptian mélée, either as plenary suzerain, or with "mandatory" sanctions and restrictions. Their long endurance of the Financial Control makes it improbable that the inevitable decision on England's part to play the game alone, and reject Turkish assistance after having sought it, will incur their opposition or even censure. Russia, certainly, is very glad to resume her old rôle of the Sultan's best friend and adviser; and the prospect of Indian troops once more sailing up the Red Sea cannot but remind her of Beaconsfield's preposterous but irritating demonstration, and encourage her to offer what passive obstruction she can to England's aggrandizing adventure. On the other hand, France's abstention, for obvious reasons, must give secret satisfaction to Germany and Italy. For the present, the upshot of the matter is that no

Continental power will lend a man for the pacification of Egypt or to guard the Canal, and that Arabi has to account with England alone.

The debates on the earlier vote of credit in the French House were a curious revelation of the state of feeling in that country. Minister Freycinet was blamed for his vacillation between a cordial understanding with England and an anxiety to secure the approval of Europe; for his running counter to French history and traditions in consenting to the Turk's return to Egypt; for having forfeited France's equal share in the direction of Egypt, by holding aloof from the bombardment of Alexandria; and for begging employment as the agent of "Europe," when that term simply meant Bismarck. M. Lockroy bitterly compared the situation to that in 1840, when Thiers was ready to fight all the Powers in support of Egyptian independence of the Porte. Gambetta ardently sustained the vote of credit, but complained that it was too small; praised Freycinet for his desire to cherish the alliance with England, which had been the object of his own famous and much-decried note of January 7; and justly ridiculed the "guarantees" which the Premier had kept in reserve with regard to Turkish interference. He insisted on giving the Ministry the fullest scope for acting during the recess of the Parliament as the crisis demanded. Apparently, French "honor" and "glory" were never more in question, by the testimony of all the speakers in opposition; yet the overwhelming majority on the vote for the Canal credit signified both a want of confidence in Freycinet, and an utter want of sympathy with Gambetta's warlike policy. In fact, the vote was a second defeat for this leader, as showing that he did not hold a divided empire with the party in power. He had not behind him even M. Lockroy, who, in spite of his historical allusions to Thiers, showed no disposition to complete the parallel between 1840 and 1882 by shouting, "To the Rhine!"

England's isolation is, from a military point of view, not wholly a loss to her. She gains freedom of action as regards France and as regards the Porte, and is hampered now chiefly by the assumed necessity of proving her disinterestedness by working through the nominal authority of the Khedive. The situation which periodically grows out of the fiction that Turkey is the peer of the other European Powers gives rise to the same sort of inconsistencies and embarrassments which marked our early dealings with the States in rebellion. The great weakness for the first few years of the Federal operations was caused by Northern anxiety to maintain the Constitutional privileges of States which were actively at work destroying the Constitution. In like manner the Porte, intriguing with Arabi against Tewfik, has cunningly delayed and weakened the blows of England, by claiming his full rights as suzerain of the Khedive. This humbug cannot last much longer, even if ironclads have to be sent to Constantinople as well as Alexandria—a by no means impossible contingency, should the Porte now insist on sending troops to Egypt on any pretext.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 26, to TUESDAY, August 1, 1882, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President, on Tuesday afternoon, sent to the House of Representatives a veto of the River and Harbor Bill, because "it contains appropriations not for the common defence or general welfare, and which do not promote commerce among the States"—which is an infraction of the Constitution.

Representative Flower, of New York, has introduced a Constitutional amendment, giving the President power to veto separate items of appropriation bills.

In the Senate on Wednesday, Mr. Lapham, of New York, said that the Committee on Foreign Relations had learned that large amounts of capital had been invested in the taking of fish for the manufacture of oil and fertilizers, and that the vessels engaged in this trade, it was asserted, seriously interfered with the food fisheries on the Atlantic coast. He therefore offered a resolution, which was adopted, that five members of the Committee be appointed to investigate the matter, during the recess, in conjunction with the Fish Commission.

The desultory debate on the Internal-Revenue Bill, which threatened to prolong indefinitely the session of Congress, was brought to a sudden close on Wednesday. Mr. Hale, of Maine, a Republican, moved to postpone all present and prior orders, to take up the Naval Appropriation Bill. Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, made a vigorous speech, insisting that the Revenue Bill be proceeded with. In the further progress of the debate the position of the friends of the bill was commented on as a virtual abandonment of it. When a vote was finally taken on Mr. Hale's resolution, it resulted—yeas, 34; nays, 26; six Republicans voting with the Democrats in favor of the motion. It is said that the knowledge that the Revenue Bill would meet its death in the House contributed to its virtual defeat in the Senate.

A motion to recommit the Naval Appropriation Bill, for the purpose of striking out the new legislation, was defeated in the Senate on Thursday, the vote being 29 to 34. In executive session, the Senate reconsidered the vote by which it had refused to confirm the President's nomination of Mr. Lanning, a Stalwart, as postmaster at Penn Yan, N. Y. He was then confirmed, by a vote of 25 to 20, thirteen Republicans voting against confirmation. Senator Miller, of New York, vigorously opposed the confirmation, attacking Postmaster-General Howe's course in lobbying for the confirmation.

On Friday the Senate passed bills in regard to the pay of letter-carriers, and ordering additional copies printed of the Tenth Census reports. It then engaged in a wearisome discussion of the Naval Appropriation Bill. The Deuster bill to regulate the carriage of passengers at sea was passed without objection on Saturday. It is constructed in accordance with the President's suggestions in his recent veto of a similar bill. When the Naval Appropriation Bill was taken up, Senator Beck offered an amendment, reducing from \$1,000,000 to \$400,000 the amount appropriated for completing the *Miantonomoh* and launching the four other monitors; prohibiting the completion of those four vessels until further orders of Congress, and directing the Naval Advisory Board to report as to the advisability of their completion. The amendment was adopted, by a vote of 27 to 22; the clause of the bill abolishing the rank of commodore was stricken out. The bill was passed as amended on Monday. The Emigrant, or "Head-Money," Bill was passed without opposition. The Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was under discussion on Monday and Tuesday.

The House of Representatives on Wednesday was principally occupied with the consideration of conference reports. The Committee on the General Deficiency Appropriation Bill

reported that it had been unable to agree with a similar Senate Committee on the question of the payment of mileage to Senators for attendance at the extra session. The House refused to recede, and a further conference was ordered. The House also insisted on its disagreement with the Senate on the provision in the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill for the transfer of the records of the Surgeon-General's office to the Adjutant-General's office. The conference report on the River and Harbor Bill was then taken up and agreed to—yeas, 111; nays, 82.

After a long discussion, the House, on Thursday, passed the bill granting a right of way through the Choctaw Indian nation Territory to the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad Company.

On Friday the House adjourned over until Monday, without transacting any important business. This is unprecedented at this stage of the session, but it is said that the action was taken because the House was afraid to trust itself with its own business, and, further, that it wished to stir up the Senate to activity. The House on Monday referred the bill placing General Grant on the Army retired list to the Committee on Military Affairs. This disposes of it for the present session.

A report on the recent Chili-Peruvian investigation was unanimously adopted, on Tuesday, by the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House of Representatives. It exonerates all officers of the United States from being improperly connected with business transactions which aimed at the intervention of the United States Government in the affairs of Chili and Peru as a part of those financial schemes.

Erastus Clark, Postmaster of Utica, a "Half-Breed," has been removed, and J. T. Stephens, a Stalwart, nominated by President Arthur for the place. The nomination is purely political, and the hand that moved it is said to be Mr. Conkling's.

Postmaster-General Howe has issued an order for stamping all packages of bonds for exchange into three per cents with the day, hour, and minute at which they are mailed at any post-office. This is done so that priority of application can be accurately determined. The orders will be filled according to this priority.

The entire collections of internal-revenue taxes for the past fiscal year, amounting to \$146,520,273 71, have been accounted for and turned into the Treasury.

It is said that the Government has expressed a willingness to arbitrate on the Mexico-Guatemala boundary question, on the joint application of those nations, after they shall have definitely determined the exact question they wish decided.

General Grant has addressed a letter to Chairman Williams, of the House Foreign Affairs Committee, urging the payment of the Japanese Indemnity.

The Star-route trials progressed rapidly in Washington during the week, the prosecution bringing their case to a close with some important evidence. On Wednesday, a discussion took place as to fixing bail for Price, who is indicted as one of the conspirators with Brady. He is now a fugitive in Canada. His counsel urged that he was under surgical treatment, and could not appear in person. Judge Wylie decided that he would have to go before a commission and give bail to appear at the proper time, and that the Court could not fix the bail in his absence. Mr. Merrick, for the prosecution, on Thursday, moved for a rule upon Mr. A. C. Buell, the editor of the *Washington Capital*, to show cause why he should not be punished for contempt of court, in publishing an article accusing Mr. Walsh of perjury, and using other abusive and libellous language.

These articles, Mr. Merrick said, were intended to intimidate and frighten other witnesses, who would not care to become the objects of such abuse. He therefore wished to file mo-

tions and call them at the proper time. The Court gave permission to file the motions. Walsh was then recalled, and made some corrections in his testimony. Several bank officers from New York and Washington were examined as to the accounts of Brady, Dorsey, Miner, and other defendants. The prosecution closed its case on Friday, but the defense were not ready to proceed, and they asked for an adjournment until Monday, which was granted.

In the Star-route trials on Monday, the defense presented ex-Senator Mitchell, of Oregon, Representative Valentine, of Nebraska, and Secretary Teller as witnesses. They testified that frequently they had urged expedition upon Mr. Brady, when he was in the Postmaster-General's Department, and that they believed that such expedition of routes was warranted.

At Long Branch, the Tariff Commission has been holding daily sessions. On Wednesday, Mr. Henry F. French, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, appeared and made a preliminary statement of the ambiguities in the existing tariff laws, and of the difficulties and litigations to which they give rise. Mr. Everett P. Wheeler, representing the New York Free-Trade Club, also addressed the Committee, urging the diminution or abolition of the duty on raw materials. Mr. Joseph Wharton, of Philadelphia, combated his arguments. The quinine manufacturers had their interests presented before the Commission on Thursday. They contended that the abolition of the duty had not been of benefit to the consumer. The flax industry sent representatives on Friday to make arguments in favor of continuing or increasing the present tariff rates on the raw material as well as on manufactured goods. The dealers in foreign periodicals made a plea on Saturday that all newspapers and unbound magazines be put on the free list. A protest was made, on Monday, against the high tariff on chemicals.

The freight-handlers, who have been on a strike for six weeks in this city and Jersey City, have been encouraged within the past few days by a number of German laborers, who had been employed in their stead, going on a strike for the rates demanded by the original malcontents. On Wednesday, a serious street row took place on the corner of Broadway and Canal Street, between some newly-employed Italians and the strikers. Several of the former were wounded. Toward the end of the week, many of the strikers returned to work, and comparative quiet was restored.

A decision was rendered on Friday, by Judge Haight, of the New York Supreme Court, in the case of the people against the New York Central and New York, Lake Erie and Western Railways, for an order to show cause why a peremptory writ of mandamus should not issue to compel the railroads to receive and transport freight as common carriers. The proceedings were begun to find a way out of the difficulties of the freight-handlers' strike, and compel the companies to receive the freight offered. Judge Haight decided that "it is not in the power of the Court to look into the future and determine the kinds or quantities of freight that will be hereafter presented for transportation, and by an order to specify how and in what manner the same shall be carried, or what kinds shall take preference." The decision asserted that the neglect to transport freight was a private wrong, for which the citizen is entitled to recover in an action at law for damages, but that it is not such a public wrong as will authorize the issuing of the writ of mandamus. The motion to quash was granted.

The Independent Republican State Committee of Pennsylvania met in Philadelphia on Thursday and rejected the four Stalwart propositions for a compromise, on the ground that they afforded no guarantee that, being accepted, the principles upon which the Independent Republicans have taken their stand would be treated with respect or put into action. This

will probably be the last of the compromise measures in Pennsylvania, unless the Stalwarts accede to the proposition of the four Independent candidates, made in their letter of July 13.

The Missouri Democratic State Convention met on Wednesday and nominated Thomas C. Sherwood for Judge of the Supreme Court, and William E. Coleman for Superintendent of Public Schools. The platform demands civil-service reform, and the reduction of all duties to a basis only necessary to secure public revenue. The temperance question is met by an assertion that the party is "in favor of the largest personal liberty consistent with the public welfare."

The Virginia Straight-Out Republican Committee decided, on Wednesday, not to call a State Convention, but themselves nominated the Rev. J. M. Dawson, an educated Baptist clergyman, for Congressman-at-large. They adopted a platform renewing allegiance to the National Republican party, and deplored the alliance of the Administration with the Virginia Readjusters.

The Delaware Republicans have nominated Albert Curry for Governor, and Washington Hastings for Congressman-at-large. The platform favors civil-service reform and a protective tariff, and expresses confidence in President Arthur's Administration.

A despatch from Utah announces that "a wholesale persecution of the Gentiles" by the Mormons has been begun, and arrangements have been made for testing the constitutionality of the Edmunds act. If the decision be adverse, the Mormons have determined not to submit. All polygamists have, under orders, resigned from all municipal offices, and monogamists who are strong believers in Mormonism have been commissioned in their places. The prominent polygamists are living openly with only one wife.

A secret organization is being formed in Arizona and New Mexico to wipe out the Apache Indians.

There is great mortality in Alaska from a plague, a combination of scarlet fever and measles. Commander Pearson, of the United States steamer *Wachusett*, is severely censured for taking both surgeons away from Sitka and leaving no medicine.

Intense heat has prevailed in this city and throughout the country for the past week. On Friday, the thermometer in New York reached 99° in the shade. The death-rate has been very great. 194 deaths were reported on Thursday, about fifty per cent. of which were due to heat; on Friday there were 184 deaths, and on Saturday 218. The total for the week was 1,217. The death-rate for the past three weeks has been higher than during any successive three weeks since 1854, the cholera year. In 1872 there was one week in which the deaths reached 1,500, but the next week there was a great falling off. The temperature declined to 87 on Saturday noon, and more moderate weather ensued.

FOREIGN.

During the week Egyptian affairs have progressed slowly. The time has been spent mostly in active preparations for further hostilities by Arabi Pasha and England; in procrastination and duplicity by the Porte; in vacillation and internal dissensions by the French Government. On Wednesday it was announced that the Porte had finally consented to send troops to restore order in Egypt, but a later interpretation of the announcement showed that the Porte merely recognized the appropriateness of the suggestion to send troops, and wanted further time for the discussion of the conditions under which they should be sent. Mr. Gladstone intimated, in a speech in the House of Commons, that the Government would not consent to the British force occupying a secondary position in case Turkey did send troops. On Thursday the Turkish delegates declared, at a sitting of the Conference in Constantinople, that Turkey

was ready to despatch troops to Egypt immediately, under the conditions of the identical note, but immediately expressed the hope that England would withdraw her forces from that country. England demanded, through Lord Dufferin, a specific date for the despatch of the troops, and, before their despatch, a proclamation upholding Tewfik, the Khedive, and denouncing Arabi Pasha as a rebel. The Sultan, replying to these demands, on Saturday, said that the request for proclaiming Arabi a rebel should not be made by England alone, but should proceed from the Conference of the Powers, in which case it would receive due consideration. Mukhtar Pasha has already made arrangements which will enable the Porte to despatch 20,000 men to Egypt in successive detachments.

Active operations around Alexandria during the week were of little importance. On Thursday the news was published of an attempt to surprise the British outposts at Ramleh, which had been unsuccessfully made on Tuesday night, July 25. Under cover of the darkness, 600 Egyptians approached close to the British lines, but the Thirty-eighth regiment opened fire upon them, and they fled precipitately. On Thursday morning a great fire broke out in the native quarter of Alexandria, near Zapiti. A large block of buildings was burned. The fire was subdued in about two hours. It was the work of Arab incendiaries. The British lines were extended a mile and a half beyond the pickets at Ramleh, on Thursday, in order to occupy a house on the banks of the Mahmudieh Canal.

A large powder magazine at Mekherrom, from which it was said Arabi had recently taken his stores, was blown up by the British on Saturday. The fort at Gabari was destroyed on the morning of the same day. Osman Pasha and twenty-six Circassian officers, who were implicated in the recent plot to assassinate Arabi, arrived on Saturday at Alexandria for Constantinople, having been summoned by the Khedive. They were received with great honor.

An unconfirmed report was spread in London on Friday that Arabi Pasha had proposed terms of peace, the conditions being voluntary exile and the retention of the rank and pay of colonel for himself and nine of his colleagues. He offered to retire to a Mussulman monastery in Syria. It was also rumored that he said he would not resist Turkish troops operating without European auxiliaries. It was announced in the House of Commons that there had been indirect communications with a view to the surrender of the military party, but there had been no direct conference with Arabi. The rumors caused Egyptian stock to rise four points. On Friday evening another rumor was spread in the House of Commons that the Sultan had made overtures to Great Britain, looking to the transfer of Egypt to England on the same terms as those on which Cyprus changed hands. On Saturday it was denied that a deputation of rebels from Kafr-el-Dwar, which arrived in Alexandria on Friday, had been the bearers of compromise proposals. The Porte also denied that it had received any announcement from Arabi of his submission.

M. de Lesseps has caused considerable trouble at Port Said, at the entrance of the Suez Canal. Early last week the inhabitants of the Arab villages attempted to enter the European quarter, but were repulsed by the military. The French Consul then applied to the French Admiral Conrad for protection for French subjects. He, in turn, asked the English Rear-Admiral to make a joint occupation to preserve order. M. de Lesseps appeared upon the scene and violently abused the French Consul for asking occupation; he said that this was playing into the hands of the English. The French Admiral then refused to land marines. On Thursday M. de Lesseps telegraphed to Arabi, telling him that he had sent a despatch to the French Premier, assuring him that the Canal was in no danger, and that if he would make him the representative of

France at Port Said, he would insure the safety of European life and property and the security of the Canal. Arabi replied that he would do all in his power to protect the Canal as long as England respected its neutrality.

The House of Commons on Thursday voted the credit for the Egyptian expedition—yeas, 275, nays, 19. A supplementary vote for 10,000 men for the Army was also agreed to.

Both the French Chamber of Deputies and the Senate had voted 7,000,000 francs for naval preparations, but on Wednesday the Committee of the Chamber rejected a proposal for a second credit of 9,500,000 francs for protective measures in Egypt. The Committee also defeated a motion that M. de Freycinet should not make the matter a Cabinet question. In the Chamber of Deputies on Saturday, M. de Freycinet moved the vote of credit, and said it was a question of confidence in the Cabinet. In spite of the appeal, the credit was rejected by a vote of 450 to 75. The Ministry then tendered their resignations to President Grévy. He requested them to transact the business of their offices until the appointment of their successors. The new Ministry has not yet been announced.

M. Say, French Minister of Finance, has asserted that it will be impossible this year to convert the five per cent. rentes.

M. Onou, the Russian representative, informed the Conference, on Monday, that Russia considered the Egyptian question divided into two distinct parts, and that he was instructed only to participate when the Suez Canal question was being considered. This seemed to put an end to the Conference, but on Tuesday he was ordered to rejoin the Powers in council. Russia is said to be jealous of England's independent attitude.

The information reached England and this country last week that a man giving his name as William Westgate had been arrested at Puerto Cabello, Venezuela, who acknowledged that he was one of the murderers of Lord Frederic Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The names of three of his accomplices and other details of the murder were taken by deposition before the British Consul. Westgate confessed that he left Dublin, on the night of May 6, by steamer. He said that he was employed by influential persons to do the deed, and that each of the assassins received \$100. It has been ascertained in Dublin that Westgate, or O'Brien, as he is also called, sailed from Northwall ten minutes before the tragedy occurred in Dublin, and that some of his friends were with him for an hour before the vessel sailed. The authorities are therefore confident that he is innocent.

The Arrears of Rent Bill passed its third reading in the House of Lords on Tuesday. Several amendments, moved and carried by the Conservatives, seriously affect the relief afforded the tenant by the Act. Mr. Gladstone will move in the House that they be not accepted.

Mr. Gladstone has announced in the House of Commons that the Government has abandoned the hope of passing the Corrupt Practices Bill this session.

In Ireland the weather has improved recently, and the prospect for crops is again promising. Though the potato blight has appeared in badly drained ground, there is a splendid crop in most parts of the country.

Lord Coleridge, Lord Chief-Judge of England, has accepted an invitation from the New York Bar Association to visit this city next year.

Minister Marsh's body arrived in Rome on Friday and was received with great honor. It was deposited in the mortuary chapel at the Protestant cemetery, where it will be buried in September.

A very successful first performance of Richard Wagner's new opera, "Parsifal," was given in the Bavarian city of Bayreuth on Wednesday.

THE WORK OF CONGRESS.

AFTER an eight months' session, Congress is preparing to go home, and, indeed, it may be regarded as having already adjourned, for there are so few Congressmen left in Washington that the transaction of any new business is impossible. The "record" of the session is a shocking one. In general legislation, although there were many subjects which urgently called for it, little has been done. The Bankruptcy Bill, demanded by the leading commercial bodies of the country, and the bills for the relief of the Supreme Court—the failure to consider which, in the present condition of the docket of the court, amounts to a substantial denial of justice—have been hustled out of the way, in spite of protests from all quarters. The tariff has been disposed of in what must be considered a ludicrous manner, by being handed over to a commission of "experts," these being merely representatives of the various interests and industries which usually get tariffs through Congress by influence and combinations, and which is really only a selected lobby. Of general legislation there has, with the exception of the Bank Charter Extension Act, been almost none, and that act Congress was compelled to pass, because, otherwise, the entire business of the country would have received a violent shock.

But Congress has not been idle; on the contrary, it has been very busy. It has done more business than any legislative body in the United States for many years. The expenditures for the fiscal year ending with June, 1883, excluding principal and interest of the public debt, are fixed at \$294,513,039. The increase over last year's outlay is a little less than \$78,000,000, and over that of the year before more than \$100,000,000.

The River and Harbor Bill has grown from something more than \$11,000,000 to \$18,743,875—an increase of more than \$7,000,000. The sum called for to make good deficiencies is nearly \$24,000,000 more than was, needed last year, of which \$16,000,000 is for pensions. We believe the only appropriation cut down this year is that for fortifications. The Naval Bill, as it came from the House of Representatives, showed an increase upon last year of nearly eight hundred thousand dollars. Before it passed the Senate, the amount authorized to be expended upon unfinished and probably worthless monitors was cut down from one million to four hundred thousand dollars. But the Naval Bill, even as the Senate has amended it, appropriates more money than was spent last year. Other of the regular appropriation bills show an increase in the following fashion over those of last year:

Army.....	\$570,200
Legislative, Executive, and Judicial.....	2,076,312
Sundry Civil.....	2,062,092
Indians.....	629,134
Military Academy.....	11,565
Post-office.....	3,886,468
Consular and Diplomatic.....	65,320

Not only has the main work of the session been the increase of the appropriations, but it has been done in a peculiarly barefaced way, and with a sort of defiance of public opinion that is more like what used to go on at Albany during the Ring period in this city than anything that has been hitherto seen at Washington. The River and Harbor Bill is on its face

such a huge job that no public defence of it has been attempted, and the Naval Bill was put in charge of a man notorious all over the country for his maladministration of the Navy Department. As if to emphasize this outrage upon the public, Mr. Robeson was allowed by the majority not merely to manage the legislation, but actually to appear as leader of the House. The appeal to the President to veto the River and Harbor Bill came from the public, and, as every one knows, has been secretly but earnestly resisted by all the members of Congress who are interested in the appropriations it makes—that is, a great majority of them. In fact, when the veto came, the House at once passed the bill again by a more than two-thirds vote.

Although the showing this year, however, is worse than usual, it is so only in degree. It attracts more attention because the figures are more startling, not because any one believes that the members of the present Congress are made of different material from their predecessors. It is obvious, too, that while they remain of the same material—that is, while they are in so large measure obscure men, who look upon politics just as the average man looks on any branch of trade which he may take up, who are seldom removed by the possession of any considerable wealth from the reach of pecuniary temptation, and who are of course entirely callous on the subject of less gross sorts of corruption—this sort of thing must continue, unless it is checked in some way.

Our legislation will be in the same class of hands for many a long year. A good deal might undoubtedly be done by a Constitutional amendment giving the President the right to veto separate items in the appropriation bills. This experiment has been tried in New York with complete success. The responsibility which the power places in the hands of the Executive, and the corresponding public watchfulness of his exercise of it, force him to devote to the appropriations a minute attention, and to examine into their fairness and expediency. The result is that a large number of bad jobs are annually killed, and the reasons for their being killed made public. What has happened at Albany would undoubtedly happen at Washington if the President had this power, and it is hard to believe that even with our very cumbrous machinery for adopting Constitutional amendments the change would not be effected in time by any resolute member of Congress who should devote himself to it. Until it is introduced, such measures as the River and Harbor job and the Buildings appropriation, to say the least, will be perpetuated. Members of Congress are not left at home by their constituents for voting for these, because in each district the appropriations create a corrupt influence at the back of the member; the unpopularity among his constituents caused by his helping them out of the national treasury is never likely to be very great.

To any one who considers the conditions which have led to the present state of affairs, the annual exhortations addressed to Congressmen to reform and devote more time to general legislation and less to contriving dodges for having money spent in their districts, seem very idle. This is, as any one can see by look-

ing at half-a-dozen speeches of candidates for Congress, the very thing they go to Washington for. The only thing that can be done to reform them is to give them some reason for devoting their attention to better things. Now, the reason that they find it for their interest to behave as they do is, that experience has shown them that in securing nominations what they need is not the support of the thinking people of the district, but that of the "boys"; and the way to get that is to have as much money spent in the district as possible. Why Jake and Barney and Mike prefer to have a man sent to Congress who knows how to get through appropriations, and look with suspicion on the "gentlemen" and "reformers" in politics who talk about the necessity of attending to general legislation, and making taxation lighter, and revising the tariff, is too obvious to need explanation. The view of the proper sort of man to send to Washington now held by Jake, Barney, and Mike will undoubtedly continue as long as the "boys" control the nominations and tell the quiet thinking people whom they have got to vote for. In other words, the "Machine" must be broken up before much improvement in legislation is likely to be seen at Washington. The "boys" must disappear from the control of politics. This is, of course, impossible as long as patronage remains in its present condition.

A NEW FIELD FOR LITIGATION.

THE English courts will soon have to pass upon the right of a city to maintain an action against a newspaper for publishing articles tending to bring it into hatred, ridicule, and contempt. The London *Lancet* has been publishing some articles on the drainage and sewerage of Brighton, which, in the opinion of the officers of the corporation, have done the place a material injury, and deter people from coming there, and depreciate the value of property. Brighton is what we should call in this country a "resort," and is a place the prosperity of which is based, to a great extent, on its reputation for being healthy. Its population lives on money drawn from people who go there in pursuit of health; and if a belief is produced that the drainage and sewerage are in such a condition as is likely to produce disease, they will go to other places. It is natural, therefore, that the Brighton authorities should resent "disquieting rumors" having a tendency to produce such disastrous results.

The case, apart from the merits, however, presents a question of law of a novel character. No court, we believe, has ever held that a city could maintain an action of libel, and the difficulties in the way of maintaining the right are obviously considerable. A private trading corporation which is libelled can obtain redress in the courts just as an individual does. All it has to show is that it has been defamed in its corporate capacity. If some wicked or reckless newspaper were to say, for instance, that the Manhattan Railway in this city was a financial wreck, the company's solicitors would no doubt successfully prosecute an action of libel and recover substantial damages, because it is a matter of public record that the company, though it had an attack of insolvency for a short period, has

completely recovered and is as solvent as possible. The libel in such a case would distinctly affect the reputation of the company. That of Jay Gould, with whom it is sometimes confounded, would not be touched, because insolvency on the part of the company could not at all impair the financial strength of Gould.

But with a city the case is obviously different. A city is a corporation which does not carry on any business, but exists for political and municipal purposes solely. These purposes vary greatly according to circumstances. In London and Paris they are mainly the protection of life and property, the maintenance of order, and the laying out, meandering, paving, and lighting of the streets. In New York and other American cities, there is generally believed to be, in addition to these objects, the support out of the taxes of a number of bosses, workers, heelers, and other politicians, and the various halls in which they arrange the "deals" by which our municipal system is carried on. Still, all this comes under the head of politics, and though we often hear politics spoken of as a trade, in city governments the trading is done by the politicians among themselves, and not by the corporation.

The first difficulty, therefore, about libelling or defaming a city would be that it has, properly speaking, no business interests which can be affected by the libel. If its character is blackened and its reputation damaged, it is not, like a business corporation, in receipt of any profits which can be diminished by a loss of business. If people are deterred from going to it in pursuit of health, or pleasure, or any other object, the prosperity of the place will, of course, be diminished; the hotel-keepers and the storekeepers will suffer; rents will fall; grass, even, may grow in the streets; but this suffering will fall rather upon the owners of property in it than upon the corporation. If the Mayor and Aldermen were to recover damages, all they could do with the money would be to put it in the city treasury, where it would reduce the general tax-rate; but this would be inadequate redress.

If the right to bring libel suits were conceded to cities, it is obvious that a new and very wide field for enterprise in litigation would be opened. In this country, owing to the peculiar condition of our municipalities, hardly a day passes without some remark about one or other thriving city appearing in print, well calculated to bring it into hatred, ridicule, and contempt. The inefficiency and corruption with which the affairs of our great cities are carried on are among the staple subjects of discussion in the press. To say that New York is the most corruptly governed city in the world, that its sewerage and drainage system is good for nothing, that its police or detectives are in league with the thieves, that its streets are ill-paved and half-lighted, and most of its parks are going to ruin, is so perfectly trite that a journalist who could find nothing severer to say would be considered a very incapable writer. Such statements must be libellous if they are not true, and the establishment of their truth in court would be no easy matter. The Mayor and Aldermen of New York live in an atmosphere of libel. The treatment of them in the press is such as must frequently arouse their

severest wrath; hitherto they have not had any means of redress when the "deals" by which the corporate affairs are believed to be managed have been denounced in the press. They all, in fact, invariably deny that there are any deals, so that there would here be a fine opportunity for maintaining a libel suit.

But the remedy could not be confined to cities. If a municipal corporation can maintain a suit, so can a county, a State, the United States, or any sovereign power. These are all political corporations, and it would be impossible to make any distinction between them. The Southern States, for instance, would have a capital means of vindicating their reputation for honesty in the courts. They are always being accused in the press of "repudiation," or, in other words, robbing their creditors. They deny in toto that they ever repudiate, but insist that what they do is to "scale," "readjust," or "fund" their obligations. The true way to test this question, and have it finally disposed of, would be by judicial machinery. If the Southerners are right, they have been grossly libelled, and a great pecuniary wrong has been done them, too; for every one knows that the borrowing power of many of the States has been seriously impaired, if not by barefaced swindling of their creditors, then certainly by the libellous articles which their creditors get published about their method of managing their debts.

But sovereign governments are having disagreeable things said about them quite as often as cities or States. A generation ago the atmosphere of international criticism between this country and England was one of perpetual libel. What were Dickens's "American Notes" and "Martin Chuzzlewit" but elaborate libels on the United States? A caricature is a libel just as much as any other. On the other hand, what were the replies of our press but libels? The late Artemus Ward used to libel the Queen and John Bull and the British nation—and in the eye of the law they are all the same—with extreme freedom and success. The war of 1812 was preceded and hastened by multitudinous libels. The Rebellion was accompanied by descriptions of each section in the press of the other well calculated to show that the end was not far off for either. The London *Times* never speaks of this country without either libelling it, or else indulging in adulation of it, and one cannot be offset against the other in a libel suit. Mr. "Richelieu" Robinson never alludes to England without defaming and insulting the British lion in the most shocking way. Such aspersions upon national character must have far more widespread effect than a libel on the Mayor and corporation of a little place like Brighton. Of course, a sovereign government could only maintain a suit in the courts of the nation where the libel was committed, by comity, but the right once recognized, this would have to be conceded. It is obvious that if the Brighton suit is successful, the future of libel suits will become very interesting all over the world. There is probably not a nation in the world that has not outstanding claims growing out of libels, sufficient, if recognized, to wipe out its national debt.

NEW ENGLAND FORESTS.

THIRTY years ago the pine forests of Maine were considered inexhaustible, and Bangor was the greatest pine-distributing centre on the continent. Spruce, which then abounded in all the Northeastern forests, was little esteemed and rarely cut, and hemlock not at all, except for its bark.

We are reminded of these facts by the publication by the Census Office of Forestry Bulletin No. 15, which deals with the pine and spruce forests of Maine. The map which accompanies this Bulletin shows that nearly one-half of the entire area formerly covered with coniferous forests has been stripped of its merchantable timber, and that the large pine, and nearly all the largest and best spruce, has been culled from the remainder. There are still, however, some considerable bodies of large, scattered pine, principally in the extreme southwestern part of the State, which, strongly held as investments, have thus far escaped destruction. Second-growth pine, too, is springing up wherever in the State the forest is spreading again over abandoned farming lands; and the oldest of the second-growth pine, although far from mature, already furnishes the mills with saw-logs, and actually supplied a large portion of the hundred and odd million feet of pine cut in the State during the Census year.

Great changes have occurred in the lumbering industry in Maine during the last twenty years. Now five-sixths of all the lumber manufactured in the State is spruce, the supremacy of Bangor as a lumber market is a thing of the past, and the Pine-Tree State obtains much of the pine which it consumes from Canada and Michigan. As factors in the country's supply of lumber, the forests of Maine are not now worth consideration. An examination of their actual condition, however, shows that their future is not without hope, and that in no other part of the country can such valuable lessons in forest economy be learned. Professor Sargent, in this Bulletin, calls attention to the fact that "the system of cutting only the large trees and carefully protecting the remainder prevails in Maine, and allows the forest to be profitably worked at stated periods, varying from fifteen to twenty-five years." The state of public feeling which has made such a system possible has not yet extended much beyond the State, but the fact that forest owners in Maine have been able to guard their property against fire successfully and introduce a sensible system of preserving their young and half-grown trees, indicates that a similar public sentiment may in other parts of the country attend enhanced values of forest property.

Fire is the greatest check to the spread of forest growth in the Eastern States; but, as we have more than once pointed out in these columns, means will be found to reduce the number and extent of forest fires as soon as the money value of the forest makes its preservation of prime importance to a community. Such has been the case in Maine. Its great source of wealth and prosperity existed in its forests. They were fast melting away, and what fires and the improvident methods of the old days had left became of such vital importance to the welfare of the whole people that the preservation of the remnants became possible. In Maine, forest fires are now of comparatively rare occurrence. The entire forest growth is not cut off, as in the Northwestern pineries; all trees below a certain size are allowed to grow for another harvest; and young pine, which is freely springing up in some parts of the State, is as carefully watched and guarded as a farm crop. Unfortunately, these wise measures were not adopted, or their

necessity even dreamed of, until the great pine supply of the State had been practically exhausted; but it is growing again, and, while Maine will never yield a second crop of pine equal to the first, it is not at all improbable that she will regain—and before many years—her position of first among the white-pine producing States.

Forestry Bulletin No. 16, with an accompanying map, treats of the pine and spruce supply of New Hampshire and Vermont. The original pine woods in both these States has entirely disappeared, although the valley of the Connecticut, the shores of Lake Champlain, and all of southeastern New Hampshire were once covered with vast forests of white pine. A growth of young pine has sprung up, principally in the southern part of these States, and these young forests furnished a cut of over one hundred million feet of lumber during the Census year. But these trees are cut too young, and at too great a sacrifice of future profit. The spruce forests of New Hampshire and Vermont, although reduced by fully three-quarters of their original extent, still cover considerable areas in the White Mountain region and along the ridge of the Green Mountain range. Young second-growth pine is carefully protected from fire, and "sprout" pine lands are now held at high figures; but the spruce forests are not yet as well preserved or carefully worked as in Maine, and they are too often the prey to destructive fires. It is worthy of remark that Burlington, once in the heart of great coniferous forests, and still the third lumber-distributing point in the United States—Chicago and Albany being the first and second—is wholly supplied with Canadian lumber.

THE BOMBARDMENT OF ALEXANDRIA— ITS RESULTS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 20, 1882.

ONLY nine days have passed since the bombardment of Alexandria, but in that time public opinion in England has passed through many phases, corresponding to the consequences which successively developed themselves as arising out of that event. The first impression of the news was on the whole one of satisfaction. Exciting news is, to a certain extent, pleasurable news; nothing could be more novel and exciting than the accounts which reached us, hour by hour in England, and were reported in the editions of the morning and evening papers issued in quick succession all day long, chronicling, one might say, every shot as it was fired, every manœuvre of the iron-clads, so that we here seemed to be listening, like Wilfrid of Ivanhoe, in Scott's novel, to one who was describing each incident of the combat as it passed under the speaker's eyes. These accounts brought with them not only a relief from the long suspense with which the progress of the Egyptian crisis had been watched, but also a sense of exultation at the ease and success with which the overwhelming power of our fleet had been exerted—that sort of thrill of power which nations feel as well as individuals, and are hardly less apt to be carried away by. And there was also some self-congratulation at the proved efficiency of these huge iron-clad ships and huge cannon, on which we have spent such enormous sums for the last twenty-six years of peace. Thus the general sentiment of the nation was disposed to approve the act of the Government, and expect good results from the display both of the physical force and of the resolute purpose of the country.

There were, however, other voices heard. The Tories did not say much, because, as they had been calling out for strong action, they could not condemn the bombardment, and of course they

were too prudent to commit themselves by applauding it. But the peace wing of the Liberal party—the section, small in number but respectable by the earnestness with which it holds its convictions—could not remain silent. Four or five of them, on the day after the fire on the forts, attacked the Government warmly in the House of Commons, declaring that we had no business in Egypt; that the presence of our fleet was unnecessary; that what had been done was done in the interests of British merchants and bondholders, and was opposed to the doctrines laid down by Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues when they denounced the aggressive policy of Lord Beaconsfield's Government. In the then temper of the House, this onslaught produced little effect. But next day the news arrived of the setting fire to Alexandria by Arabi and his army, and of the general plundering and murdering which followed. The first accounts, which described a general massacre of the Christian population, were corrected by subsequent telegrams. But enough remained to produce a profound and painful impression. A great city, one of the first seaports of the Mediterranean, reduced to ruins in two days, its population flying into the country, the European warehouses, offices, residences, with their contents, sacked or destroyed—this was a horrible and unexpected result of the bombardment, which chilled the satisfaction of the previous day. Those who had blamed the action of the Government pointed to its result as proof that they had been right. This, they said, is what comes of intervention. These horrors show that the enemy you despised was in desperate earnest. What will you do now? You have produced anarchy in Egypt. You will be forced to go on and enter on a regular war; you will have to conquer and occupy the country; and this will not only make you hated by the people, but involve you in difficulties, possibly in war, with France and the other five Powers. This view of the case was taken up, or, I ought rather to say, is being taken up to a considerable extent by the working classes. They have, of course, very little knowledge of the complicated circumstances of the case; but they have an idea that wars generally are undertaken for the pleasure and in the interest of the aristocracy and the moneyed classes; they do not see what our Government should have to do with Egypt, and when an appeal is made to them in the name of peace and humanity their first impulse is to respond. How far this line of sentiment, which is certainly strong among the working classes of London, prevails in the manufacturing and mining districts of the North we cannot yet tell. The whole matter is so new to the masses that they have hardly yet had time to take a side, much less to form an opinion. Much will depend on whether things go on smoothly for the next few weeks. The Tory leaders have generally abstained from expressing any opinion, waiting till the time should come for a formal debate in which the whole policy of the Ministry may be arraigned. But the light horse of that party have, as usual, been much more forward. Most of them are ready to approve the bombardment in itself as a necessary piece of severity. They accuse the Government, however, of gross want of foresight in not being prepared to follow up their first blow by landing troops, cutting off the retreat of Arabi and his army, and occupying Alexandria so as to save it from fire and pillage. The result of this slackness and timidity has been, in their view, to destroy the good moral effect produced by the destruction of the forts, as well as to involve the ruin of the city and the merchants whose fortunes were embarked there.

To these two opposite fires of criticism the Ministry reply by declaring that the attack on

the forts was an act of self-defence, rendered necessary by the way in which they were being strengthened against the fleet. To have landed troops, however, would have been quite a different matter. That would have been an offensive operation, an act of aggression which would have been inconsistent with the declarations England had made on entering the Conference at Constantinople, and would have given reasonable offence both to the Porte and to the other European Powers. This is, of course, only the outline of their vindication of their conduct, which they support by insisting that the safety of Europeans everywhere through the East, and the free navigation of the Suez Canal, were both involved in the assertion of European authority and the punishment of Arabi. There is, doubtless, a good deal to be said for their policy in substance. The position was so difficult a one that no quite satisfactory issue from it could be looked for. And though every one, after the event, says that the burning of Alexandria was only what might have been expected, no one, in fact, predicted it, or advised that any preparations should be made for such a contingency. But, technically and logically, the Ministerial line of argument seems a narrow and barely tenable one. If the fleet was sent to Alexandria to protect British life and property, as Mr. Gladstone repeatedly declared, why should it remain there when all British subjects had quitted the city? Why take measures which have ended in the destruction of all the European property in the place? It may be that the fleet was not safe while the forts were being strengthened. But what occasion for the fleet to remain, seeing that it had taken every Englishman on board? The French fleet steamed away before the English ships opened fire. Could not the English fleet have done the same with no more loss of prestige than France has suffered? As to the landing of troops, could not the capture of Alexandria from the shore have been just as much, or as little, a measure of self-defence as its destruction from the sea? It has been necessary after all to occupy the town and hold it against Arabi. Might not this have been done from the first—with the additional advantage of compelling the army, caught in the town, to lay down its arms, and thus at one stroke freeing Egypt from military tyranny and from the danger of brigandage by the soldiers if they desert and scatter? Such are some of the criticisms which one hears on this first act of our armed intervention in Egypt. The next seems likely to be the despatch of a regular force, and the occupation, probably in conjunction with France, of the country. Unwelcome as this is to the general public opinion of England, the calling in of Turkish troops and re-establishment of the Sultan's authority would be even less welcome; so that there will be little disappointment here if the invitation addressed by the Conference to the Sultan should be refused.

Meantime, it is not to be denied that the result of all this is further to weaken the Government. I do not speak merely of Mr. Bright's retirement, though that loosens their hold upon the Radical party and the Nonconformists. I refer rather to the general sense that they are engaged in a disagreeable task, which, like a coercive policy in Ireland, does not sit well on them, and is not likely to be very heartily performed by them. The feeling grows that they are unlucky; and although there is not yet anything that can be called disaffection, there is a sensible diminution of the enthusiasm which formerly attended, stimulated, almost glorified them. The sooner they can get rid of Parliament for the recess, this year to be broken by an autumn session, the better it will be for their own stability. Y.

A POLITICAL FORECAST.

LONDON, July 18, 1882.

THE days of the Gladstone Cabinet are, I suspect, numbered. The Ministry may not at once perish: there are many chances in favor of its hanging together for months; but its strength is gone, its life is ebbing away, and there is, in my judgment, the highest probability that Mr. Bright's retirement is only the most visible sign of a break-up of the whole Cabinet, which may be deferred for a time, but cannot be indefinitely postponed. This view of the state of affairs may, I frankly admit, be completely mistaken. Nothing is so rash as confident political prediction, and I assuredly make no claim to be a prophet.

There are, moreover, two or three circumstances which obviously tell in favor of the Government. If trust in Mr. Gladstone has declined, confidence in the Opposition has not increased. There is some difficulty in conveying to any one not on the spot the tone of feeling which prevails with regard to Lord Salisbury and his colleagues or followers. No one feels any intense hatred toward the Conservative leader or his party; no one supposes that a Conservative Government would be a specially bad Government, or, except perhaps as regards Ireland, a really reactionary Government. But, on the other hand, I have scarcely met with any one, whatever be his political bias, who professes confidence in the judgment or in the abilities of Lord Salisbury, or of the men who would necessarily be his colleagues. It were easy enough to pick out hundreds of persons who so detest Mr. Gladstone that they would see with delight any member of the House of Commons (unless it be Mr. Parnell) in occupation of the premiership. But even fanatics in whom hatred and distrust of Mr. Gladstone have overpowered every other sentiment, do not profess any particular regard for Lord Salisbury. Some of the bitterest attacks ever directed against his Lordship appeared, if my memory does not deceive me, in the pages of the *Pall Mall Gazette* before the conversion of that journal from Jingoism to Radicalism. Nor is the weakness of his opponents the sole security for Mr. Gladstone's continuance in office. Any candid observer of English public life must confess that Mr. Gladstone, whatever be his errors or weaknesses, towers by a head and shoulders above all other English politicians. As long as Lord Beaconsfield lived, this was not the case. Lord Beaconsfield's claims to a high rank among statesmen have been disputed, and not without reason; they will now probably continue to the end of time a matter of debate. Still, he was undoubtedly a man of rare talent. His opponents might deny both his administrative capacity and his political honesty, but he was one of those leaders in whom it was possible for his followers to have faith. At the lowest estimate any one could make of his talents, he was, as Mr. Bright termed him, the "mystery man" of his party. He was at least as conspicuous a figure on the stage of public life as Mr. Gladstone. As much cannot be said for any other among existing statesmen or politicians.

Sensible men, again, may well reflect that the present Cabinet, whatever its deficiencies, contains as much talent and character as could be found in any other conceivable Ministry. Mr. Lincoln's warning against "swapping horses when crossing a stream" expresses a principle which, rightly enough, always weighs greatly with cautious, considerate persons, who care more for the interest of the nation than for party triumphs or for party defeats. If you could poll England, you would, I take it, find that a large number of Conservatives, no less than of Liberals, were, at the bottom of their

hearts, very averse to a change of Government at the moment England is passing through what may fairly be called deep waters both in Ireland and in Egypt. There is no inconsistency in distrusting Mr. Gladstone and at the same time wishing that Mr. Gladstone should for the present moment continue in office. There is, moreover, no clear sign that the majority of the electors do distrust Mr. Gladstone. On this point his assailants are constantly misled by the idea that the defects in the Premier which offend their judgment or taste are offensive to the Dissenters and workingmen who at the last general election forced him into power. It is hardly an exaggeration to say that the characteristics of the Prime Minister and his policy which offend persons whose tone of sentiment or of thought is expressed in the *St. James's Gazette*, are exactly the characteristics which have won the admiration and confidence of the English, and still more of the Scotch, democracy. The "preachiness"—if I may use the expression—of Mr. Gladstone's popular oratory; his desire to identify politics and morality; the heat or fervor which appears in every word that he utters; his trust in the feeling of the people; the very imprudence and recklessness with which he lets his words give immediate expression to ideas or emotions which more prudent men would keep buried in their own minds—are all traits which, on the whole, conciliate popular support just as surely as they shock opponents who can hardly acknowledge Mr. Gladstone's extraordinary oratorical and administrative abilities because of their intense dislike to his moral tone. Until the fact is established that the thousands who rallied round Mr. Gladstone in 1880 have ceased to believe in the leader who was then their hero, it were absolute folly to deny that Mr. Gladstone's own personality is a source of strength to the Cabinet.

The absence, in short, of trust in the Conservative leaders, the patent evils of a change of Ministry during a serious crisis, the hold of Mr. Gladstone on the sympathies of the electors, are all circumstances telling strongly in favor of the Cabinet's continued existence. Yet, when I have taken all these circumstances into account, and have attempted to the best of my ability to weigh their importance, I still come to the conclusion that the days of the Gladstone Ministry are numbered. My reasons for this opinion can be easily placed before your readers, who must judge for themselves of their value.

The first and the most patent danger to the Government is the loss of reputation which is sure to attend any Ministry who are forced, in appearance if not in fact, to repudiate the principles which they advocated while in opposition, or to carry out a policy more natural to their opponents than to themselves. Mr. Bright's secession from the Cabinet is, from this point of view, an omen of disaster. The member for Birmingham is a man governed rather by sentiment than by logic. His strength as a statesman has always consisted in his sharing and representing a special vein of political, moral, and religious feeling. His sympathy with the views and aims of Mr. Gladstone brought Mr. Bright into office, and has no doubt kept him there long after the time when, if he had followed the promptings of his own heart, he would have retired from the Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster. His resignation shows that on one point at least Mr. Bright can no longer sympathize with and approve of the action of his former colleagues. To say this, is not to impute dereliction of duty or moral inconsistency either to the Premier or to the member for Birmingham. They probably each believed, and not without reason, that though their speculative convictions as to the circumstances under which

England might justly engage in war differed, it was practically next to impossible that any case should arise under which either of them would be prepared to involve the country in warfare. The unforeseen case has, however, arisen, and the whole extent of the difference in principle between the Minister who was in office at the outbreak of the Crimean War and the orator who throughout his life has denounced no contest so bitterly as the war with Russia, has now become apparent to the whole world.

But Mr. Gladstone, when in opposition, undoubtedly derived a great deal of support from men whose feelings or convictions were those of Mr. Bright. On another appeal to the country Mr. Gladstone will find that this element of support is wanting. The mere defection of the limited body of political Quakers does not measure anything like the whole of the loss sustained by the Cabinet. During the electoral campaign in Midlothian Mr. Gladstone had the immense advantage of occupying a clear, definite, unmistakable position, from which he could appeal, as he did appeal, with untold force to the ordinary, everyday, and therefore strong, moral convictions of mankind. He was the opponent of every kind of aggression. He was the advocate of high international morality, as opposed to men who thought, or who appeared to think, that the interests of England, rather than definite moral dogmas, were the only sure guide in matters of foreign policy. As the practical result of his moral and political theories, Mr. Gladstone, and still more decidedly Mr. Gladstone's followers, urged upon England the necessity of turning away from the intricacies of foreign affairs, and of directing attention to the many reforms needed at home. Whatever else England might do, she was bound, above all things, not to aid or promote the spread of Turkish power or influence. We all know the fervor with which the electors answered to Mr. Gladstone's appeal. The Ministry were placed in office with what French politicians call a "mandate" from the constituencies. The Cabinet were to pursue peace abroad and reform at home. The mandate was thoroughly understood, and, as far as circumstances allowed, honestly obeyed. The retreat from Afghanistan, the treaty with the Boers, the vigorous attempt to settle the Irish land question, the avowed intention of carrying through a whole batch of domestic reforms, might exacerbate the already bitter hostility felt by large classes to Mr. Gladstone and his policy, but the earlier acts and intentions of the Ministry were precisely in conformity with their avowed principles, and with the wishes of their zealous supporters.

It is now clear that fate has been too strong for the Cabinet, and that Mr. Gladstone has been compelled to adopt measures which, in appearance at least, are opposed to the professions which gained him the triumph of 1880. He governs Ireland under a measure which, though in principle less objectionable than the Coercion Act which soon expires, may be described with some truth as the severest measure of repression passed during the last half-century. Ireland is full of discontent, Mr. Gladstone and the Liberal party are hated by the Home Rulers, and order is not restored. Abroad, matters look hardly better. Alexandria has been bombarded, English troops are landing in Egypt, Cyprus is found useful as a place of strength, Indian regiments are hurrying up to take part in proceedings which, if not technically warfare, have all the outward aspect of war, and, worst of all, the Turk is invited and pressed to exercise something very like the rights of sovereignty in a province which had practically ceased to form part of the Turkish Empire. All these things have an odd look. Appearances are, I think, to a great ex-

tent delusive. Mr. Gladstone's policy in Egypt, no less than in Ireland, admits, if not of perfect defence, yet of a good deal of explanation. It is not nearly as inconsistent with the principles avowed by him in opposition as it at first sight appears. But appearances are in this world a great power; and when Mr. Gladstone again appeals to the country, he will be forced to speak, not as a critic of others, but as an apologist for himself. An orator has lost half his power when he becomes an apologist. It is vain to hope that ingenious explanations will exert the influence of fervid denunciation: the triumphs of 1880 cannot be repeated. If the country were polled, the Cabinet would, it is likely enough, escape defeat, but an indecisive battle is a very different thing from a splendid victory; and I observe, without amazement, though not without reflection, that zealous Liberals do not at the present moment care to court an appeal to the constituencies.

Suppose, however, that (as I myself am inclined to think is the case) a more or less satisfactory defence can be made out for the conduct of the Government in Ireland and abroad, it is not at all certain that the explanations which save the character of the Ministry will not turn out to be arguments in favor of putting the Conservatives in office. If it be proved that Mr. Gladstone has, under the stress of circumstances, been compelled to use coercion in Ireland and to assert English power by force of arms in Egypt, the inference may perhaps suggest itself to the electors that the time has come for restoring to office statesmen who have always been ready to rely both at home and abroad on the use of force. Any one who examines the history of the last fifty years will soon find reason to believe that no Cabinet has ever maintained itself long in power after adopting a policy more suitable to the convictions of its opponents than to its own. The position of the Duke of Wellington after carrying Catholic Emancipation, the weakness of Peel after the repeal of the Corn Laws, the fate of the Aberdeen Ministry during the Crimean War, the fall of the Conservative Government after passing the Reform Act of 1867, are only a few of the facts which suggest the inference that for a Government to undertake work natural to its opponents is the surest way of undermining its own authority.

The second circumstance which bodes ill to the Ministry is that the Conservatives can, if they choose, force an appeal to the country. Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues hold that the passing of the Arrears Bill is essential to the restoration of order in Ireland. Lord Salisbury has undoubtedly the power of causing the bill to be thrown out in the House of Lords. If he takes this course, it is difficult to see how Mr. Gladstone can in the long run avoid either resigning or appealing to the country. If the Ministry accept the rebuff and drop the bill, their credit is gone; if they prorogue Parliament and bring in the bill again in another session, the Lords may again reject a measure which assuredly commands no great popularity in England, and may in effect refuse to pass it without a distinct expression of electoral opinion in its favor. The Conservatives, however, may, for the sake of giving some relief to the Irish landlords, or because of the great convenience to the Conservative party of throwing on Liberals all responsibility for exceptional legislation, let the bill pass. It is not, however, at all clear that with the passing of the Arrears Bill the troubles of the Government will be at an end. The Home-Rulers avowedly believe that a dissolution would give them many additional Irish seats. Whether this idea be true or not, I cannot say; but the existence on the part of Mr. Parnell and his followers of the conviction that a dissolution would

increase their power, is of itself sufficient to make them active or passive allies of the Conservatives in any attempt to force on the Government an appeal to the people. As things now stand, there is, therefore, it seems to me, a fair chance that before long some question may arise on which Conservatives, Home-Rulers, and dissatisfied Liberals may coalesce and place the Government in a minority. Mr. Gladstone is assuredly not the man to cling to office after he has lost power. It is far more like him to yield to the impatience natural to a statesman who finds his policy thwarted through the coolness of friends or the recklessness of foes, and on the first serious defeat to resign an official position which can have no attraction to him after it has ceased to be the means of carrying out the policy which he approves. In one way or another, the Government, therefore, may, I believe, be sooner or later compelled to resign or to dissolve. The best that can at present be hoped from a dissolution is that the Ministerial majority may be lessened and not absolutely destroyed. If this be the best result which the Cabinet can anticipate, critics like myself, who have no wish except to see things exactly as they are, may not unnaturally come to the conclusion that the days of the Gladstone Ministry are drawing to a close. The assassins of the Phoenix Park and the incendiaries of Alexandria will, I suspect, be found to have dealt deadly blows to a Cabinet of statesmen who, whatever their defects and shortcomings, are more anxious to give prosperity to Ireland and to abstain from attacks on all foreign powers than any Ministers who during the century have held power in England.

A. V. DICEY.

THE ARCHIVES AT MARBURG.

BERLIN, June 30, 1882.

LAST month I spent about a week at Marburg. This city, a former residence of the old Landgraves of Hesse, is renowned in German history as the place where, in 1529, Luther and Zwingli met for the reconciliation of their views concerning the sacraments and other religious reforms ("Marburger Religionsgespräch"). At about the same time (1527) the first Protestant university was founded there, which for nearly a century ranked foremost among the high schools of Germany, then sank into utter insignificance, although several prominent professors (and first among them, in 1800, the greatest scientific jurist of modern times, Friedrich Carl von Savigny) began their career at Marburg. Since the annexation of Hesse to Prussia it has again attained importance. While seventy years ago numbering 200 to 250 students, it now has nearly 800. The city is, besides, celebrated for the old church of St. Elisabeth (a classic specimen of Gothic construction of the thirteenth century), and for an old mediaeval castle, uniting the different Roman, Gothic, and Renaissance styles of architecture, which dominates the surrounding country and looks into the beauteous and fertile valley of the Lahn.

However, I do not propose to enter into the details of the charming scenery which offers itself to the views of the tourist, but rather mean to confine myself to the noble old memorial hall which at present contains the public archives of the province of Hesse-Nassau. In Prussia the administration of the public records is effected in a very simple and efficient way. While all matters of general interest, such as treaties of the kingdom with foreign powers, matters of reform in domestic policy and general legislation, correspondence with Ministers abroad, motives for new laws, etc., etc., are preserved in the general state archives in Berlin, each province has an archive of its own, which contains the more local documents and papers re-

ferring to its old political development and history. At the head of the whole is a director, at present the celebrated historian, Heinrich von Sybel. The archives of every province also have a chief, who is subordinate to the general director, and to whom a number of assistants are attached. These officials must have studied at a university, and are only appointed after having passed an examination in history and its auxiliary branches, such as palaeography, epigraphy, numismatics, diplomatics, and reading of old, especially mediaeval, Latin records. They are advanced according to their abilities. The solid education and scholarship of these gentlemen enable them to render valuable service to those who study in the archives, access to which is exceedingly liberal. Down to 1840 you can obtain a sight of any paper you may desire; in case of need the proper officer not only hands it to you, but assists you in using it, and points out to you supplementary documents.

To return, however, to Hesse-Nassau. Parts of it belong to the oldest political districts and ecclesiastical foundations of Germany—e.g., Fulda, with its bishopric founded by St. Boniface; Hersfeld and Fritzlar, with their celebrated convents; Gelhausen, one of the residences of Friedrich Barbarossa. All these, as well as the castles of the imperial princes, counts, and barons, have had to give up their manuscript documents to the Marburg archives. Besides imperial orders and papal bulls, I saw three parchments sealed by King Pipin, and a number of missive letters issued and signed by Charlemagne. The most important documents concerning the time of the Reformation, the reign of Philip the Generous, of Hesse, and the political negotiations preceding and following the war of Schmalkalden, are deposited there. The manuscripts specifying the position and conduct of William of Orange and his successors throw a very important light on the history of the war of the Netherlands with Spain. The documentary proofs of the important part the Hessian Landgraves took in the Thirty Years' War, and the rôle they played in European politics in the eighteenth century, are likewise preserved among the files of the archives. There is, in fact, no period in European history of the last eleven hundred years for which the historian will not find new and interesting manuscript materials in the Marburg Castle. The greater part of these papers are admirably arranged, the drawers in which they are kept being ventilated, in order to keep them from moulding. It will, nevertheless, be at least ten years yet before the able archivist, Dr. Könnecke, will succeed in completing the necessary arrangements for making all these treasures available to the historical student.

The most interesting portions of the archives for an American reader are the papers referring to the sale of the Hessian troops to England and their participation in your Revolutionary War. Out of about thirty volumes containing the details of the sale of Hessian soldiers—beginning with the Venetian campaign against the Turks in Morea (1675) and coming down to the English war in Holland and Belgium against republican France (1794)—at least ten folios contain the particulars about the part which the Landgrave of Hesse and his troops took in your Revolutionary War. These volumes are splendidly bound in parchment, and were taken by the Landgrave (Elector) when, in 1806, flying before the French invasion, first to Schleswig and afterward to Prague, from which latter city they returned with the reinstated Elector to Wilmshöhe, near Cassel. Here they were discovered in an attic of the palace by the above-named Dr. Könnecke, at whose suggestion they were incorporated with the archives of Marburg.

These volumes are a real treasure for every historical student, as they not only contain the diplomatic negotiations of the Landgrave and of his Minister, Schlieffen, with the English Government, and the respective treaties founded thereon, but also every day's orders and the letters issued and written by the Landgrave to his generals and colonels in America, as well as their answers and reports on the condition and conduct of their troops, well-drawn maps and sketches of the localities having relation to the Hessian headquarters.

Let me point out, as belonging to one of the most important episodes of the war, the proceedings before a court-martial on the capture of Trenton. They are specified in three volumes, and give the minutiae of the examination of about fifty witnesses, participants in that affair. The Landgrave was quite shocked at this disaster, which turned the scales of the war in favor of the American cause, and could never forget and forgive it to his officers. Not only did he recall the chief commander of his troops, General Heister, although this meritorious officer could not be made responsible, but during the whole war he did not promote a single inferior officer who, under the command of Colonel Rall, had only obeyed orders. I beg here to remark in parenthesis that Rall was not at all the ridiculous figure that Washington Irving makes him, but an earnest and brave man, so much of a regular that he despised the "undisciplined peasants," and by his defeat was severely punished for his contempt of the enemy. He very well knew how to command a regiment, but could not handle a large force of troops on his own responsibility. Heister's successor, General Knyphausen (the captor of Fort Washington), was for years urged by the Landgrave to finish and send in the proceedings of the court-martial instituted against the surviving officers and men of Rall's command. Knyphausen, however, from delicacy of feeling for his unfortunate brethren in arms, from year to year, under all possible pretexts, delayed the transmission of his final report, and it was only in the last year of the war (1783) that he complied with the Landgrave's strict and ungracious orders. Finally, the court-martial censured only the dead officers and acquitted the surviving ones. Although these papers do not throw much new light on the affair at Trenton, they are full of interesting particulars which confirm the high estimate of all competent military critics of Washington's bold movement and its splendid execution. The Landgrave, I must confess, appears in his directions a much better man than a mere dealer in human flesh. He is his own minister of war, and a very good one, too; he knows and cares for everything, is pedantic, strict, and active, but of a small mental horizon, while he is filled with the pride of his position as ally of Great Britain and as chief of a brave army.

Another almost equal number of Hessian papers of the same character were, after the annexation of Hesse to Prussia, sent to Berlin, and are now on file in the archives of the grand staff of the army under Marshal Moltke. They formerly belonged to the Cassel Ministry of War, and were indexed by the former Hessian Colonel Sturmfelder, but are not so well preserved as those at Marburg. They refer chiefly to the transactions of Hesse-Hanau with England; give all the particulars about the financial business of the two contracting parties; the income from which was about £100,000 higher in favor of the Hereditary Prince than stated by old Schlaezer, Bancroft, and Kapp. Another interesting part of these papers forms a collection of about a hundred letters written by officers to their relatives at home, who were directed by the Prince to send them to him for his perusal. They give

some charming sketches of American society at the time, and the elegance of manners prevailing in the old colonial families like the Beekmans, Phillipses, Morrises, and others. These letters bear the imprint of reality and truth, and are the more valuable as their writers, although enemies and foreigners, are involuntary witnesses and reporters of the real state of American society.

Another very interesting relic of old times I found at Marburg, in the possession of Dr. Könnecke, who accidentally had discovered it at Halberstadt, in a volume containing some twenty or thirty old pamphlets. It is the only copy of 'Sex elegantissimæ Epistole' printed by William Caxton in 1483, and described under No. 52 in the work of Mr. W. Blades, 'The Biography and Typography of William Caxton' (London, 1877). The little pamphlet, containing only some forty pages, is unusually well preserved, with even uncut leaves. I do not admire the Caxton prints, since for elegance of cut of types, solidity of paper, and clearness of print they are much behind the old German and Italian incunabula. But tastes differ, and English book maniacs even exceed those of other countries. Mr. Könnecke was offered £300 by the British Museum for the little pamphlet; but being aware of the extraordinary value of this *unicum*, he asks £1,000, and is sure to get it. + + +

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.—III.

PARIS, July 6, 1882.

In the year 1836 Madame Sand was engaged in her suit of separation from M. Dudevant, her husband, and was meanwhile making a revision of 'Lélia.' She expressed her ideal at that time to Madame d'Agoult, who was living at Geneva with Franz Liszt: "To throw yourself in the bosom of nature; to take her really as a mother and a sister; to cut away from life stoically and religiously what only belongs to vanity; to resist the proud and the wicked; to be humble and small with the unfortunate; . . . to live on almost nothing; to give away almost everything, and so to reestablish the primitive equality and to revive the divine institution—such is the religion which I will preach in my corner." Lélia belonged to this religion; she was above love, though she could inspire it; she saw the virtues of a convict. She was, in fact, George Sand herself, with her curiosity and her insensibility. Madame Sand had such a strong fibre that when she wished to hear the piano she crawled under it, so as to absorb the sounds better. She recognized in Liszt the only artist who could give life to the wooden instrument. It is surprising, at the same time, to find her so poetical. Read this, for instance:

"I have moments of spleen; but I resist and I pray. To pray is an important, a difficult thing. It is the end of the moral man. I am only beginning to learn: I am at the lowest step of the staircase of Jacob. So I pray seldom and badly. But, badly as it is, I have a foretaste of infinite ecstasy and of emotions similar to what I experienced in my youth, when I thought that I saw the Virgin, a luminous apparition, pass like a sun over me. Nowadays I have only visions of stars. . . ."

She was learning astronomy; she always felt attracted toward science, but her science was poetical. She could not commit the names of the stars, nor find her way in the longitudes and the latitudes. She admired, but admiration is perhaps better than knowledge:

"No star," she says, "resembles another, when you look attentively. I had never understood this before this summer. Look, if you wish to understand me, at Antares, or the South, from nine to ten o'clock, and compare it with Arcturus, which you know. Compare Vega, so white, so tranquil all night, with the Goat, which jumps

into the sky toward midnight, and which is red, brilliant, burning, as it were. Apropos of Antares, which is the heart of the Scorpion, look at the gracious curve of this constellation; it is something to kneel before. Look also, if you have good eyes, at the whiteness of the Pleiades; admire the delicacy of this little group at the dawn of day, in the midst of the nascent aurora. . . . God is the master of these treasures."

This is, in my opinion, perhaps the best of George Sand; it is her faculty of admiring, and of expressing her admiration. She was essentially a descriptive writer; in her worst novels there are pages which are as good as anything Rousseau ever wrote on the Alps or the Lake of Geneva; she was a naturalist and a poet. Her moral walk was mischievous—she had, so to speak, no moral sense; but she always recognized the "Deus ignotus," the hidden divinity which breathes and lives in nature, in plants, in things animate and inanimate. As soon as she was out of humanity's reach, she became noble and pure. She really hated mankind; it was troublesome; nature was always calm and serene:

"I have had my fill (*J'ai plein le dos*) of all great men. . . . Let them be sculptured in marble, or melted in bronze, and speak no more of them. As long as they live, they are wicked, persecutors, fanatical, despotic, bitter, suspicious. . . . They are worse to their friends than to their enemies. . . . Remain always good, stupid even, if you can."

This new volume of letters, which extends from 1836 to 1848, fully confirms what I said in my analysis of the first volume. Madame Sand was a man in character; she had none of the delicacies of her sex; she never knew what love was. Though she wrote volume after volume on the passion of love, she was only open to the sentiment of friendship; she often said of herself, "I am a *bon garçon*."

Madame Sand paid a visit to Madame d'Agoult and to Liszt, in Geneva, in September, 1836. She disliked Paris, and when she could not be at Nohant, she travelled as much as she could. "I hate Paris; I never remain an hour longer in it than I need. I become ill-tempered and insupportable there; I am always out of breath, busy, enraged against the fools who separate me from my friends—never doing what I wish, what I ought—always impatient to shake off the dust of this accursed city." She was becoming more and more republican and socialistic. She had made the acquaintance of the leading Saint-Simonians, and we find her scolding some of them for their moderation.

"I tell you," she writes to M. Guérout, "that I have never known, and that I know, but one principle, which is the abolition of property." The time has not come, she acknowledges it, for the application of the principle, but she and a few others ought to keep in their hearts "the good principle, pure, without a spot, without the shadow of concession to any Jesuitical metaphysics and to a pretended morality in which men don't believe. A time will come when this good principle will have its day. We shall be no more, but our sons or our nephews, having received it from us, will speak and do something."

She was at times heartily tired of her work. She writes to Jules Janin: "You have no idea how disgusted I am with literature (I mean with my own). I am passionately fond of the country. I have all the indoor tastes: I love cats, dogs, children especially. I am no longer young. I should like to sleep at night. Help me out of the claws of Buloz, and I will bless you every day of my life. I will give you my manuscripts to light your pipe."

One of the least known and most interesting incidents in the life of Madame Sand is her journey with the famous Chopin to the island of Majorca. Chopin was consumptive, and Madame Sand took him with great difficulty from

Paris to Majorca. She had her two children with her, Maurice and Solange. Consumption is a rare malady at Majorca, and it was considered there contagious in the year 1839. Chopin and his companions were soon looked upon as if they carried the pest, and as pagans to boot, for they did not go to mass. The proprietor of the little house which Madame Sand had taken turned them out most brutally. Chopin could not well be transported back to France; Madame Sand fortunately discovered, in an old, abandoned convent of friars, a Spanish family, which was hiding for political reasons. This family, wishing to emigrate to France, sold all its furniture to Madame Sand. She lived in the Certosa of Valdemosa like an exile.

"Valdemosa," she writes, "a poetical name, a poetical place, an admirable, sublime nature, with the sea on both sides of the horizon, with formidable mountains above us. The eagles came over the orange trees of our garden, a line of cypresses ran from our house to the bottom of the gorge; under our feet were terraces covered with myrtles and palm trees. Nothing more magnificent! But it is right to lay it down as a principle that, where nature is good and generous, men are wicked and avaricious."

Madame Sand could hardly procure the necessities of life, even for gold. She could not procure servants; nobody wished to take care of a man in consumption. With great difficulty Chopin had obtained a piano, and he consoled himself with playing in his cell. What music must have issued from the dying man of genius under that incomparable sky beside the blue Mediterranean Sea! Madame Sand gave lessons to her son. She worked day and night. Chopin composed; but after two months the climate became too cold, the clouds began to hang over the mountains, the roads became torrents. "All this would have been fine if poor Chopin could have borne it. Maurice did not suffer from it. The wind and the sea sang in sublime tones, beating our rocks. The immense and deserted cloisters creaked over our heads." There were no chimneys; it was impossible to make a good fire. It soon became necessary to quit the island; and as there was no carriage, Chopin had to be transported to Palma on a litter. On arriving at Palma he spat blood abundantly. The next day Madame Sand embarked with him on the only steamer of the place, which then took only pigs to Barcelona. Chopin arrived at Barcelona miserably ill. There Madame Sand, thanks to the French Consul, had him transported to a French man-of-war, and the French doctor of the ship took excellent care of him. The inn-keeper of Barcelona demanded the price of a bed, in which Chopin had only slept once, as it was an *infected* bed. "Spain," exclaims Madame Sand, "is an odious nation." From Barcelona they went to Marseilles, and Chopin bore the crossing very well.

This second volume of the Correspondence is, on the whole, more interesting than the first; it is more rich, more abundant, more philosophical. The letter of September 27, 1841, for instance, to M. Charles Duvernet, at Lachâtre, contains a complete programme of religious philosophy. Madame Sand was at the time enraptured with the philosophy of Pierre Leroux. "I am certain," she writes, "that one day people will read Leroux as they read now the 'Contrat Social' of Rousseau. . . . When I was a sceptic, when I wrote 'Lélia,' with my head aching with sorrows and doubts on all things, I adored the goodness, the simplicity, the science, the depth of Leroux; but I was not convinced. I regarded him as a man who was the dupe of his own virtue. Now I feel differently; if I have a drop of virtue in my veins, I owe it to him, whom I have studied for five years." Age

made her more calm, more hopeful, more confident in the goodness of God. She was no longer blinded by her passions; she did not feel so much the spur of personality. She always maintained that people gain by losing youth, since they lose at the same time what deforms truth, and their hearts get enlarged and milder. She felt like the conqueror after the battle, and said to herself at times: "I have played my part; the hour of rest is coming." The hour of rest never came, but her philosophy constantly became more practical. "We must live," said she, "as we ride: be very supple, not unreasonably oppose the horse, and have a very light hand; trot when we are in a hurry, and go pacing or jogging when there is a good sun and no hurry. God has done all things well."

These letters are full of such passages, which are at times charming. They are incoherent, they are addressed to very extraordinary persons, and many things are hardly intelligible now. They form, in their collection, a very curious commentary on the literary work of one of the most gifted and extraordinary writers of our time.

Correspondence.

BRITISH RULE IN INDIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: 'England's Work in India,' by W. W. Hunter, C.I.E., LL.D. (Smith, Elder & Co., 1881). This is the title of a pamphlet of 137 pages just sent to me by a correspondent in Ranikhet, in the Northwest Provinces, India, who is himself much interested in the improvement, and especially in the education, of that country. Mr. Hunter, the writer of the pamphlet, is at present engaged as president of a large and important committee now considering the best method of increasing the education of the people. He is the author of numerous books and papers on the subject of India, and it is believed no higher authority can be found. The spirit in which he writes is well expressed in the following words on page 135:

"I do not believe that races among whom we raise a taxation of 35 millions sterling, and into whom we have instilled the maxim of 'No taxation without representation' as a fundamental right of a people, can be permanently excluded from a share in the management of their finances. I do not believe it practicable to curtail for long the right of the freest criticism on their rulers, to 191 millions of British subjects, who have the speeches of our great statesmen at this moment ringing in their ears."

The pamphlet says, page 133: "An electoral body is being developed in India by the municipalities and local district boards. There are already 1,163 members in the municipal bodies of the Bengal and Madras Presidencies alone." And yet there are great difficulties in the way of this development, growing out of the habits, traditions, and want of education of the people. My correspondent at Ranikhet writes:

"As a fact, there is a large number of municipalities in Upper India with elected members; but it is found in almost every case that the people cannot be induced to go to the poll. They look upon an election as so much wasted power and trouble. People at home will not understand or believe this, and no doubt your countrymen would also find it hard of understanding."

Placing the right of suffrage in the hands of the uneducated and now incompetent millions of India is a measure which it is to be hoped will be introduced gradually and cautiously; but the interesting question which the pamphlet endeavors to answer is, whether or not British rule, after more than one hundred years of trial, has conferred benefit on the Indian races. Mr.

Hunter well says that "no government has a right to exist which does not exist in the interests of the governed. The test of British rule in India is not what it has done for ourselves, but what it has done for the Indian people. By this test our work in the East must stand or fall."

Here, then, are some of the results: The multitudinous native states, the isolation of which was only broken by merciless wars, are now trading quietly with each other, bound together by railways and roads, by post and telegraph. India is a great, three-cornered country, stretching southward from Asia into the sea. Its northern base rests upon the Himalayan ranges; the chief part of its western side is washed by the Indian Ocean, and of its eastern by the Bay of Bengal. But there are gateways left by nature on the northeastern and northwestern corners, and through them during 700 years the warring races of Central Asia and Afghanistan poured in hosts of from twenty to a hundred thousand, paying for nothing, devastating every town, cottage, and farm-yard in their path, and burning and slaughtering on the slightest provocation, and often in mere sport. An invasion also meant usually a grand final sack and massacre at the capital of the invaded country. In the middle of the last century six such inroads on a great scale took place in twenty-three years.

The sea, which forms the natural defence of the rest of the country, was in like manner only a source of new dangers. On the Bay of Bengal the pirates from the Burmese coast sailed up the great rivers, burning the villages and massacring or carrying off into slavery the inhabitants. On the other side of the peninsula, in the Indian Ocean, piracy was conducted on a grander scale. Wealthy rajahs kept up luxurious courts upon the extortions which their private fleets levied from trading vessels and from the villages along the coast. The truth is, that the natural defences of India—the mountains and the sea—were in the last century equally powerless to protect the Indian races. Absolute protection is now everywhere extended by the powerful arm of Great Britain.

But protection from within is as necessary as protection from without. Anarchy breeds lawlessness and crime. The country was infested by professional banditti, formed into regular communities, and subsisting by spoil. There were *thugs* and *dacoits*, or hereditary stranglers and gang-robbers, who thought none the worse of themselves for their profession, and were regarded by their countrymen with an awe which, in the last century, could hardly be distinguished from respect. Now a completely organized police, and a criminal code framed by a commission composed of such men as Lord Macaulay and Judge Fitzjames Stephen, have changed all this, and, strange as it may sound, there is to-day less crime in India than in England.

"In the last century education in India was a monopoly in the hands of the priests—a power which they employed to subjugate the minds of the people. Under British rule education has been taken entirely out of the hands of the priests and has become the great emancipator of the Indian races. In ancient India a Brahman was forbidden, on pain of death, to teach the sacred books to the masses. . . . The Hindus were taught from their earliest childhood that they must remain imprisoned for life in the caste in which they were born."

Now there are two millions of boys and girls receiving public instruction.

"These two millions of native children are learning that every occupation and every profession in British India is open to every boy on the benches of an Indian school. . . . The rising generation in India have been freed from superstitious terrors; they have been led to give up cruel practices, and have learned to detest

and despise their forefathers' bloody rites. Widow-burning, infanticide, hook-swinging, self-mutilation, and human sacrifice—these are a few familiar relics of the old bondage under which the Indian intellect cowered and the Indian heart bled. Great as has been the material progress of India during the past century, its emancipation from ignorance and priesthood forms a far more splendid memorial of British rule."

Another result is the revival of letters. The vernacular journals now exceed 230 in number, and are read every week by half-a-million of people. In 1878, 5,000 books were published in India, besides a vast importation from England. Of the printed matter, only 500 were translations, the remaining 4,500 being original works. Any one who has seen the poetry of Toru Dutt will acknowledge that poetic genius of a high order still survives in the Indian race.

The drama has been in all ages a great educator of the Indian races. The native theatre forms the best, indeed the only, school in which an Englishman can acquaint himself with the indoor life of the people. He suddenly finds himself in an era of intense dramatic productivity.

Great cities have sprung up: Calcutta and Bombay have each about three-quarters of a million of inhabitants.

The foregoing gives the favorable side of Indian life, but there is another and a gloomy one. The great evil consists in a crowded population of small cultivators without capital, and with no restraints on marriage. Each Hindu marries as a religious duty, and marriage takes place at the close of childhood, quite irrespective of there being any means of subsistence. It is estimated that the population increases at the rate of two millions a year. The extent of the evil may be thus stated: Two-fifths of the people of British India enjoy a prosperity unknown under native rule, other two-fifths earn a fair but diminishing subsistence, but the remaining fifth, or nearly forty millions, go through life on insufficient food; and this number is constantly increasing. This is the fearful problem which remains to be solved; and it becomes intensified in importance when it is remembered that a failure of the crops, to which that burning land is always liable, may cause a famine which may sweep off in one season millions of the inhabitants.

On this subject, Mr. Hunter says, page 81:

"I do not, however, agree with those who think the problem insoluble. The permanent cure for over-population rests with the people themselves, and consists in those restraints upon marriage to which all nations of small husbandmen have sooner or later to submit. But we cannot wait till that compulsory lesson is learned, but must meet the difficulty by the resources of civilization. These resources may lighten the pressure of the population on the soil in three ways: first, by withdrawing large numbers to non-agricultural industries; second, by distributing the pressure over new or underpopulated tracts; third, by increasing the produce of the existing area of cultivation."

In the first direction, something has already been achieved. The new industrial life of India is already feeding millions of mouths, and before ten years are over will feed many millions more. India can command the cheapest and most dexterous manufacturing labor in the world. The country is also apparently on the eve of great mining enterprises. No one would have predicted in 1855 that Indian exports would rise from 20 to close on 70 millions during twenty-five years, and no wise man will now venture to predict the limits of the industrial development of India before the close of this century. In the second direction, also, something has been done to lighten the pressure of the people on the soil, and the Government is now reconsidering the question of encouraging both capitalists and

laborers in the work of transferring the population from overcrowded to the underpeopled provinces. In the third direction, Mr. Hunter gives his reasons for thinking that improved methods of husbandry and irrigation will accomplish important results.

While the actual taxation for ten years ending in 1879 averaged 35 millions of pounds sterling, it has now reached 40 millions—not a large sum per capita: not nearly as large as it was previous to British rule and when the population was much less, but large in view of the poverty of the people.

In this communication I have made use of the ideas, and even of the language, of Mr. Hunter, often without finding it convenient to use quotation-marks. My object in writing is to correct impressions in regard to British rule in India which I cannot but think are erroneous, and which recent articles in the *Nation* strongly tend to create.

G. W. B.

BALTIMORE, July 19, 1882.

Notes.

A WIDE circle of readers will be pleased to learn that Mr. Joel Chandler Harris is engaged upon a volume to be called 'Nights with Uncle Remus,' which will give a wider range to plantation subjects than the previous volume did; and also upon a story of slave life in the South.

Harper & Brothers will shortly publish 'Outlines of Ancient History,' by P. V. N. Myers.

A new metrical volume, 'Swabian Stories,' by Theodore Tilton, and 'Tristam of Lyonesse, and Other Poems,' by A. C. Swinburne, are promised immediately by R. Worthington.

McPherson's 'Hand-book of Politics' for 1882 will be ready soon after the adjournment of Congress. Like its predecessors, it records the political and Congressional events of the Representatives' term of two years. The indispensable character of this work makes a mere mention of its appearance sufficient. The publisher is James J. Chapman, Washington.

Funk & Wagnalls have in press 'The Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge,' of which Dr. Philip Schaff is the editor. It is based on the 'Real-Encyclopädie für Protestantische Theologie und Kirche' of Herzog, Plitt, and Hauck, with the full approbation of these editors.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have brought out in neat gray paper covers for summer reading Howells's eminently seasonable stories, 'A Chance Acquaintance' and 'Their Wedding Journey.'

Walton Van Loan, Catskill, N. Y., has issued a crude colored lithographic panoramic view of the Catskill Mountains, as seen from the east bank of the Hudson. The several peaks, hotels, towns, and other features of the landscape are helpfully designated.

No. 2 of the *Library* of Cornell University contains a desirable account of the apparatus—grammars, texts, dictionaries, and reference works—for the study of the Egyptian hieroglyphs; and seventeen pages of classified titles of works relating to mathematics, covering so far about one-eighth of the so-called Kelly Mathematical Collection of the Library.

The official announcement concerning the American School of Classical Studies at Athens states that the school-year will extend from October 1 to June 1, and members will be required to prosecute their studies during the whole of this time in Greece, under the superintendence of the Director (Prof. W. W. Goodwin). During the rest of the year they may study where they please. The school studies will be definite, and one or more theses yearly will be expected upon

them from each student. There will be no school fees, but also no scholarships except such as may be offered by individual colleges. The School will extend reasonable facilities to Americans residing in Greece, but not formally enrolled as students.

The *Penn Monthly* has ceased to exist, and is to be regretted as an enterprise undertaken in good faith, and dealing with a more serious line of topics than the ordinary magazine. At one time it seemed as if the advocacy of protection were its chief *raison d'être*.

One of the greatest curiosities on the Continent of Europe, the *Maison Plantin* at Antwerp, is briefly described, with illustrations, in the *Portfolio* for July (J. W. Bouton). The views, however—one interior and two exterior—are rather tantalizing when one considers how the typographic treasures preserved in this museum lend themselves to reproduction.

For the first time the venerable 'Almanach de Gotha' is supplemented by an 'Annuaire,' intended to perfect the list of diplomatic and consular agents of the civilized nations of both hemispheres (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). It is identical in form with the 'Almanach,' but is not more than one-quarter as thick. It first gives the Ambassadors, Ministers, etc., of each country, and immediately afterward the Secretaries, Attachés, etc.—all arranged alphabetically for ready reference. Then comes a list under each country of the diplomatic and consular corps resident therein, in alphabetical order (a) by nationality, (b) by place of residence. Finally, the entire *personnel* is indexed. The national colors occupy four colored plates at the end. The editors crave and merit indulgence for the necessary shortcomings of a first edition. The 'Annuaire' will appear regularly in the middle of the year.

The bi-monthly *Lettres Chrétiennes*, published at Lille, is hereafter to contain an analysis, prepared by M. Ulysse Chevalier, of periodicals and of the transactions of learned societies, over two hundred in number, so far as they contain articles on the subjects which this periodical treats—namely, literature, criticism, education, the defense of religion, and philological or historical learning.

A striking bust of the historian Lanfrey, by the sculptor Mezzara, has been placed in the Town Hall of Chambéry, his native place.

The latest bibliography is Wagnerian. Nicolaus Oesterlein, honorary member of the Vienna Wagner-Verein, and ardent collector of everything in print relating to the master, has prepared an elaborate 'Catalogue of a Richard Wagner Library.' This work, of which Mr. Christern has received the prospectus, is divided into six parts, beginning with a record of all that has been written by Wagner himself, and including references to all that has been said for and against him. There will be a Baireuth section, and one entitled "Curiosa," in which the humorous element will not be lacking; an appendix on the sources of Wagner's *Stoffwahl*, and a full index. Moreover, yearly additions will continue the Catalogue indefinitely. The Brothers Senf, in Leipzig, are the publishers.

—Apropos of our note (in No. 890, p. 53) regarding military prison life in the United States regular Army as pleasanter than in the British service, a correspondent writes: "One of the best buildings at Fort Snelling is that in which sixty convicts—mainly recaptured deserters—have been gathered from all parts of the Northwestern department. I have tasted their bread, made of the world-famous flour, Minnesota *Straight*. There is no better brand. Their labor is out-doors, and light, for there is little to be done. Their life is easier than that of the

scanty garrison, for they sleep out their full sleep every night, while every man of the soldiers outside must stand guard every other night for four hours—a task doubly harassing because broken into two watches. I saw two files of soldiers load their guns and escort the prisoners to their work, yet was told that escapes were no rarity. A week before, four convicts were at work near the river, one of whom, as their sentinel stooped to drink, pushed him in, while another, seizing his gun, forced him to walk on before the squad for half-a-dozen miles into the woods, and then permitted him to return unarmed, while the deserters had been no more heard of. After all, perhaps Fort Snelling malefactors lack one mitigation of their seclusion which has been enjoyed by the inmates of the Wisconsin State's-prison at Waupun. There a prima donna of no small local celebrity came in and sang all her favorite airs to the congregated criminals on Sunday, while the price of admission to her week-day concerts in the neighborhood was too high for workingmen to afford that luxury. Outsiders there complain that sentimentalists will do nothing for a poor fellow till he is *done for*—or has done something dreadful."

—“J. D. B.” writes us, referring to an extract we recently made from Ireland's ‘Emerson’:

“The prayer at the close of Emerson's Middlebury address, you speak of (vol. xxxv., p. 17, i.) as by ‘a Massachusetts clergyman’ was in fact offered by Rev. Stephen Martindale, the Congregationalist minister of Wallingford, Vt. By two or three witnesses let every word be established. My wife and I were both there, heard the prayer, knew the maker of it, and agree in our testimony.”

—Under the title of “Notes” on the native trees of the lower Wabash and White River Valleys, Mr. Robert Ridgway contributes a valuable paper to the current volume of the Proceedings of the National Museum, the result of long and careful observations made by himself and other naturalists upon the forest growth of southern Indiana and Illinois. The region in question is of special interest, because here many of the peculiarly Southern trees, like the pecan, the water locust, the over-cup oak, and the bald cypress, reach their Northern limits, and because this forest is hardly surpassed by any other in the number of species of which it is composed, and the magnificent development attained by many individuals. The forests of western Florida or southern Arkansas are perhaps richer in species, but nowhere in the whole of Eastern America have as many large specimens of as many species been recorded as Mr. Ridgway finds in the lower Wabash Valley. Nearly all of our largest and most valuable broad-leaved trees are here found associated together; and in a single square mile of woods 75 species of trees, nearly all of the first class, were detected by him, or nearly as many as grow on the whole European continent. By actual measurement, 34 species are found to occasionally exceed 100 feet in height, while 17 others, although not measured, are believed to attain a height of at least 100 feet. The tallest individual measured, a tulip tree, was 190 feet in height, and individuals of 10 other species exceed 150 feet.

—Mr. Ridgway calls attention to the fact that the numerous small prairies which were common in the Wabash Basin at the time of its first settlement have become transformed into woodland, and that owing to this gradual change of prairie to forest the actual area of forest in Wabash and the adjoining counties in Illinois is greater than fifty years ago. Extensive woods of oak and hickory more than eighty feet high, and with trunks nearly two feet through, are now growing on what was open prairie within the memory of some of the present owners of the

land. This is interesting as a slight indication of the solution of the mystery which involves the origin of the prairies, while the rapidity with which these new woods have sprung up shows that the reproduction of our failing forests can be accomplished in a shorter time than is generally supposed, if proper consideration and attention can only be given to the subject. Mr. Ridgway's paper is a most important contribution to the knowledge of our trees, and it is greatly to be desired that local botanists should more generally follow his example, and record their observations upon the original trees and woods of their neighborhood before these shall have disappeared from off the land.

—The late George P. Marsh's ‘Compendious Grammar of the Old Northern or Icelandic Language’—the earliest Icelandic grammar which saw the light outside of Scandinavia—was written in 1834-5, but was not printed until 1838. It was not a mere translation, but was compiled from the three grammars of Rask, printed at Copenhagen (1811 and 1832) and Stockholm (1818), with noteworthy improvements in the sections devoted to inflection, and much new and valuable matter in the treatment of the syntax. A considerable portion of the work was printed during the author's absence from Burlington, and he was obliged to trust the proofreading to a less competent person, so that the volume contains some errors of the press. For this reason the book was never published, but copies were freely given to students of the ancient Northern tongue. Mr. Marsh's own knowledge of that tongue has perhaps not been excelled, extending even to a complete mastery of the complicated metrical system of the skálds, enabling him to read the most difficult old Icelandic verses with ease. His papers on Icelandic literature and philology, contributed to the *American Whig Review*, the *American Eclectic*, and various foreign and domestic journals, still remain the best essays by an American on these subjects, and well deserve republication. His collection of Scandinavian books, which a few years ago was deposited in the library of the University of Vermont, is especially rich in editions of the classical works of Iceland, a department to which he continued to add even in his latest years. With the late Professor C. C. Rafn, Secretary of the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries at Copenhagen, Mr. Marsh conducted a correspondence which extended from 1833 to Rafn's death in 1864. Several of his letters are published in ‘Breve fra og til Carl Christian Rafn’ (Copenhagen, 1869). After the first one, dated Burlington, October 21, 1833, they are all written in thoroughly idiomatic Danish. Professor Rafn was accustomed to state that in the whole correspondence, which was largely written before Mr. Marsh had ever visited any part of Scandinavia, he had detected but a single grammatical error on the part of the American scholar—a mistake in the gender of a noun. He wrote Swedish, too, with equal correctness—not an easy task to a foreigner familiar with Danish, owing to the close similarity and delicate divergences of the two tongues; and his acquaintance with the more southern languages of Europe was almost as exact. He possessed one of the broadest of minds, with an abnormally absorptive memory, and his knowledge ran in many varied, but never shallow channels. At one time he was the only authority in this country on the art and history of engraving, and made considerable collections, which were subsequently sold, and are now, if we are correct, preserved in Washington. Officers of the Army were wont to envy his profound acquaintance with military science, while naturalists were amazed at his far-reaching

studies in nearly every department of physical investigation. In fact, specialists of any kind rarely conversed with him without feeling sure that he had devoted himself, with extraordinary zeal, to their own particular department. But, like most men of this class, his published works do not fairly represent the immensity and variety of his attainments.

—The ‘Annual Register’ for 1881 (London: Rivingtons) is sure to be a much-consulted volume of the series, so many germs of great political changes are contained in it. The Parliamentary revolution begun by the Parnellites in fighting the Land Bill; the short-lived Ministry of Gambetta; the French occupation of Tunis, of which the real causes are clearly set forth; the military *coup d'état* in Egypt; the assassination of the Czar Alexander; the assassination of Garfield—these are some of the events which will not soon be forgotten, and whose consequences will form the staple of the history of the current year, when it comes to be written for the next volume of the ‘Register.’ The two most valuable features are the daily Chronicle of events and the Obituaries. In the “Retrospect of Literature, Science, and Art,” a summary is attempted for the last two provinces, but literature is treated in detail, with an attempt at independent judgment on each of a certain number of books. The result is certainly anything but a high order of criticism, and we do not see why the summary method is not employed here as in the case of science and art. Some one might be found to do for England and America what the foreign colaborers of the *Athenaeum* do annually for their respective countries, in estimating the literary product of the twelvemonth. The appendix gives in parallel columns the text of the Land Bill of 1881 as brought in, and of the Act as passed.

—That a man's portrait can serve to emphasize the oblivion that has overtaken his name and reputation, will be believed by readers of *Le Livre* for July. Champfleury opens the number with a mocking article on the “Forgotten Romantics,” taking Siméon Chaumier for his first illustration, in all probability because there was an absurd lithographic likeness of him handy for reproduction. S. Blondel begins a series of articles on the writer's tools, and in the first place concerning the pencil, of which the earliest mention, he says, is in a printed book, ‘De Rerum fossilium Figuris,’ of the year 1565. Colored crayons we owe to Jacques Conté, a French chemist commissioned by the Revolutionary Committee of Public Safety to supply the loss of the English article when war had interrupted commerce. To this day, however, France has neither plumbago nor cedar-wood for making lead-pencils, and is obliged to import these essential materials. Lamartine, says M. Blondel, always used a pencil in composing, for fluency's sake. Several dozen sharpened pencils lay constantly before him on his desk. In its news department, *Le Livre* tells of the discovery among Thiers's papers of voluminous “Notes,” in one parcel, which have all the appearance of being materials for *mémoires intimes*. They will probably be published, despite Mlle. Dosne's repugnance. Further on, we have some distressing details of the plunder and dispersion of Balzac's library and private papers upon the death of his widow. There appears to be some mystery about the fate of Balzac's correspondence with Mme. Hanska before their marriage. Her story that she had burned it is not credited.

—Arsène Houssaye wrote the history of the Forty-first chair of the French Academy—of the great rejected who, in his opinion, ought not to

have been rejected ; the outs who were greater than any of the ins ; men who could describe themselves, with sarcastic modesty, as did Piron, "qui ne fut rien, pas même académicien." M. Edmond de Goncourt, the survivor of two brothers who have written much together and written well, but are not members of the Academy, means to go far beyond M. Houssaye in his protest, and to rival Richelieu by founding a new academy. He has made a will by which he creates a society of ten men who are not to be members of the Académie Française. Each academician will receive annually 6,000 francs salary. This is more than the elder Academy pays, but money was worth more when that was founded. Each year the *Académiciens Goncourt* are to meet (a new Council of Ten) to adjudge a prize of 5,000 francs to the best prose work produced in the previous twelve months. The funds for the foundation are to be obtained by the sale of the books and bric-à-brac now contained in M. Goncourt's villa at Auteuil, and so well described in the 'Maison d'un Artiste.' Perhaps the house itself will serve as the headquarters of the Academy. The first members will, it is supposed, be Naturalists, for Goncourt belongs to that school. The next generation will have the amusement of seeing the Naturalism in the new academy gradually yield to whatever is to succeed it in French literature, as Classicism gave way to Romanticism in the Académie Française. It is the indiscretion of M. d'Herville, a friend of M. Goncourt, that has revealed this fine project to the public. It is to be hoped that the members-elect, if they know that they are nominated in the will, will not be too impatient for the opportunity of pronouncing their founder's eulogy : also that they and their successors will never give occasion for the writing of a 'Histoire de l'onzième Fauteuil de l'Académie Goncourt.'

—The force of party feeling and political hatred in France is a continual surprise to us Americans, in our present calmness, and is occasionally alarming to those who hope for the quiet success of the French Republic. Yet any American past middle age, who can recollect with what energy of dislike his grandfather pronounced the words "British," "regulars," "red-coats," and how he would inveigh against standing armies and monarchical government, may understand a late scene in the French Chamber of Deputies. A speaker had used the proverb, "Où il n'y a rien le roi perd ses droits." A member of the Extreme Left cried out : "Shall we never get rid of these old formulas ?" and showed that he could not endure the word "king," even so innocently used. It was a trifle; but it is one of many trifles which show an implacable feeling that we may pardon if we remember our pre-bellie anti-slavery days, and the feeling attached to "Copperhead" only twenty years ago.

—The painter Jadin, who died lately, famous for the portraits which he painted of those poodles which Parisian ladies of a certain class have been ill-naturedly said to care more for than for their children, had another claim to be remembered by posterity. He discovered the *Quartier Monceau*. Thirty years ago he bought a large tract of land next to the *Pare Monceau* for a trifl, established himself there, and made the place known to his friends, and now it is the favorite place of artists and millionaires, much to the advantage of M. Jadin's heirs, for he had found selling land even more fashionable than painting King Charleses.

—The effacement of national peculiarities, alias "unification" of the world, steadily pursues its course. Paris, which has taken from and sent to London innumerable ideas, has at last bor-

rowed the famous Madame Tussaud's wax-work gallery. The judicious Parisian managers have improved upon the English show by adding the journalists—to conciliate the press: Zola is there as large as life and quite as natural. Otherwise the plan of the whole is the same : warriors and statesmen side by side with murderers and forgers, in their very habits as they lived ; for it is the boast of the prospectus that particular attention has been paid to exact imitation of the clothing, one of the surest indications of character. The man who likes "se faire remarquer" has his brilliant necktie; the man of quieter disposition, who shows "qu'il est de son essence de passer inaperçu dans la foule," is indulged in his taste. The necessary knowledge of this important fact has apparently been gained by personal inquiry, if the celebrities have not actually sat for their statues as they sit for their photographs nowadays. It must be an interesting study of contemporary character to visit the Museum, and see how many and who have flaming neckties. The exhibition after all is not more foolish than many others that have drawn crowds in Paris, and perhaps the favor with which it is received means nothing. But some observant Parisians complain that serious drama is less thought of of late years; that the theatrical public goes less and less to judge and more and more to be amused; that many people who once, when the drama was flourishing, would have attended the theatre twice a week, now go only when some play is making a sensation; and as the plays of that kind are kept on the boards a hundred or three or four hundred nights, they can go to such a theatre at least but once a year—whence decay of the love for the drama and decay of the dramatic taste. The same strain was the burden of the London press while "Our Boys" was having its run of a thousand and one nights. In all countries which have any drama worth mentioning the drama is always decaying in the estimation of the lover of the good old times; but it can hardly be doubted that there has been a change in the temper of Parisian audiences since the time when Hazlitt, visiting the theatre in 1824, found "the attention more like that of a learned society to a lecture on some scientific subject than that of a promiscuous crowd collected merely for amusement. There was an unvarying gravity in looks and demeanor, as if every one had an immediate interest in the character of the national poetry, in the purity of the French accent, in the propriety of the declamation, in the conceptions of the actor, and the development of the story." The last interest still remains. Do all of the forraer?

—The "Report on the Health of Wenchow" for the six months ending September 30, 1881, by Dr. D. J. Macgowan, is egg-full of curious matter. Having, as he ingenuously confesses, but little to say on the official subject of his report, and being apparently an accomplished Sino-logue, the author has taken the opportunity to throw together a miscellaneous collection of memoranda concerning some of the prevalent superstitions of the Chinese, which are well worth preserving. Among other things, he has a word to say about "epidemic frenzies"—the popular crazes which at times affect whole communities, and of which the most noted Western example is the witch mania which devastated Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. These epidemics appear to be very common in China, the latest conspicuous instance being the terror created in 1876 by the supernatural clipping of queues, which doubtless our readers will remember. It seems that sorcerers are in the habit of scattering charmed bits of paper representing men, which are the means of disseminating evil spirits throughout the com-

munity. When one of these spirits enters a house he proceeds to cut off a piece of the queues of the inmates, and the sorcerer, on obtaining possession of this, can evoke at will the soul of its owner, which he is able thereafter to use as a servile demon, while the man dies through the loss of his spirit. The only cure is for the sufferer to cut off an inch or two more of the remainder of his hair and keep it for eighty days soaking in a cesspool, thus severing the mysterious connection between his head and the portion of hair in possession of the sorcerer. For prevention, reliance is placed on amulets and charms, and in 1876 the Governor of Kiangsu issued a proclamation embodying a charm of his own invention, to be posted over the doors of dwellings or to be worn as an amulet. He further recommended an anathema, attributed to Lao-Tsze, the founder of Taoism, which was to be chanted while copying it on yellow paper with the blood of a cock mixed in vermillion, the paper being thereupon burned and the ashes swallowed. Dr. Macgowan assures us that there was scarcely a house-door that was not protected by a charm, and scarcely an individual who did not wear an amulet on cap or sleeve; but it subsequently appeared that the panic was the work of secret revolutionary societies, whose emissaries found little difficulty in creating a disturbance by clipping off a few queues from the unwary in each large city, and by loudly announcing in places of public resort that they had been treated in the same way. After this, any one who suffered from nightmare, or had an attack of colic, or met with any theft or misfortune, attributed it to the paper men let loose by the sorcerers.

—The first volume of the Scientific Results of the *Vega* Expedition ('Vega expeditionens vetenskapliga jakttagelser,' etc.; Svo, pp. 812, 15 maps and plates; Stockholm, 1882), edited by Baron Nordenskiöld, is recently received. For so solid a volume it is difficult to do more than indicate the nature of its contents, which, with the exception of Professor Hildebrandsson's contribution, are printed in the Swedish language. Professor Nordenskiöld devotes one hundred and sixty pages to an account of the voyage prepared for Mr. Oscar Dickson and forwarded at intervals during the voyage; and to a discussion of the feasibility of trade with the icy coasts of the Siberian seas. Almqvist follows with the health record of the party, an account of the provisioning from a hygienic point of view, the mess-bills, and a temperature record for the interior of the ship compared with that of the outer air during the time spent in winter quarters. He also contributes a 'Study of the Chukchi Color Sense,' and a summary of the lichen collections made on the north coast of Siberia. The botanical results are extensive. From Doctor Kjellman we have papers on the seaweeds of the Siberian Sea, on the Phanerogamic flora of the north coast of Siberia, Novaya Zembla, and Waigat Island, and of the Asiatic coast of Bering Strait, whence he describes a new primrose (*Primula tschuktschorum* Kj.) and a new rush (*Luzula latifolia*). These are beautifully illustrated, together with two new grasses belonging to the genus *Glyceria*, which are described by J. Lange in a catalogue of the flowering plants prepared by Kjellman and Lundström. Kjellman also contributes an article on the domestic life and habits of the Chukchi, whose language is illustrated by a vocabulary prepared by Lieutenant Nordqvist. The article by Nordenskiöld on the Aurora at the *Vega* winter quarters, illustrated by a fine map, develops that hypothesis of concentric terrestrial aurora-crowns, or "glories" which in a condensed form has been made public in the 'Voy-

age of the *Vega* and in the columns of *Nature*. It is well understood that this hypothesis is the most important contribution to the study of auroras which has appeared in a number of years. The observations for geographical position obtained by the expedition are discussed by Lindhagen. Highly important in this connection is the discussion (in French) by Dr. Hildebrandsson of the meteorological observations made during the journey and wintering; especially in view of the recent well-deserved impeachment by Woeikoff of the East Siberian isotherms in Wild's great temperature atlas of the Russian Empire. We may be prepared for a flood of light on the reported temperatures of Verkhoyansk when the observatory at the Lena mouth, just established, begins to turn in its records. The volume closes with Dr. Stuxberg's comprehensive article "On the Invertebrate Fauna of the Siberian Sea," illustrated by some beautiful woodcuts and a well-executed map of dredging stations. Among other additions to knowledge, the name *Weyprechtia* is applied to a new genus of amphipods, a well-deserved honor and a name appropriate to one who haunts those icy seas. A list is given of the range in depth on the Siberian and Novaya-Zemlian coasts of the mollusks found semi-fossil on the tundras of the Yenisei. This article is especially full and valuable on the crustacea, and it is to be hoped that it will appear in a language a little more accessible to ordinary naturalists than the Swedish. The magnetic observations are still in process of computation and reduction, and we learn by a letter from Baron Nordenskiöld that Prof. Pettersson, the better to elucidate some interesting points in the hydrography (which has been placed in his hands), has this summer undertaken a trip to Spitzbergen for the purpose of testing by experiment some theories which the *Vega* material has suggested. The results will appear in the second volume, next autumn.

LECKY'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

A History of England in the Eighteenth Century. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. Vols. III. and IV. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

MR. LECKY has mistaken his vocation. He possesses the talents of an essayist. He has, unfortunately, undertaken the duties of an historian, and does not possess the proper qualifications for the due performance of his task.

Historians, indeed, are, we frankly admit, of most different kinds. What we object to in Mr. Lecky is that he is not capable (as far as his writings show) of excelling in any of the various departments of history. He does not pretend to be an investigator, or to explore the eighteenth century in the same way in which Mr. Gardiner is exploring the wide field of the seventeenth century. He hardly makes a show of dealing with any but the patent and well-known facts of his subject. The Annual Register, the speeches and writings of Burke, the letters of Junius, the correspondence of George III. with Lord North, Mr. Bancroft's history, and works of a similar character, Mr. Lecky has read, and read with care, with intelligence, and with insight. But his reading—though far wider than that of the typical "educated gentleman," who is supposed (quite erroneously) to have at his fingers' ends all the common facts of English history—is in kind not unlike the reading of any intelligent student who cares to know what may easily be known about England during the first twenty years of George III.'s reign. We may even doubt whether Mr. Lecky can boast of anything like the special knowledge as to the lives of particular persons and the details of special transac-

tions which gives considerable value to the narrow but very acute speculations of Dilke. This author, who is most unduly despised by Mr. Lecky, investigated certain problems—as, for example, the mystery which hangs over Burke's early career—in the spirit of an acute detective, but he, after all, knew what research meant, and therefore added something to the stock of human knowledge. Mr. Lecky has never realized that history is nothing but the collection of facts and the sifting of evidence.

If Mr. Lecky is not an investigator, neither does he stand high among narrators. His facile and flowing style makes everything that he narrates agreeable reading, but it takes no great acumen to perceive that Mr. Lecky does not possess that rarest of all gifts, the power of telling a complicated story in a lucid and simple manner. No writer will ever achieve this feat who is not endowed with a keen sense of proportion, and with an eye for perceiving how a complicated subject can be simplified by being carefully distributed into its different parts. Of proportion, Mr. Lecky has no perception whatever. His two volumes afford hardly adequate space for telling the story which he has to tell; yet he wastes twenty pages over the letters of Junius. We deliberately use the word "wastes," because Mr. Lecky all but admits that he has nothing new to say with reference to a subject about which it is hardly worth the while of any sensible man to say anything at all. He holds, perhaps with reason, that Francis was the author of the celebrated letters. But in favor of this opinion he produces not a single argument which is not already thoroughly well known to any person who has ever cared to glance at a controversy which is now chiefly interesting because of the number of men of mark who have at one time or another taken sides in it.

There are writers, such as Mr. Froude, who have not the capacity to give an account of complicated events in the form of a clear narrative, but who yet can paint the scenes of the past. Is Mr. Lecky one of these painters? We cannot with truth answer the question in the affirmative. We have read all his volumes with care, but we cannot recall a single description, either of events or of men, which has left any permanent impression on our memory. Mr. Lecky, indeed, makes great and conscientious efforts to present his readers with a fair estimate of the different actors in the drama of English politics. He tells us a great deal about George III., about Chatham, about Lord North, about Wilkes, and about Washington; but when we have heard everything he has to say we remain without any clear, definite notion of the character of the persons whom he means to describe. There is, for example, no topic to which Mr. Lecky devotes more labor than to the attempt to paint and explain the antagonism between Chatham and Burke. He makes a good number of remarks on this subject which may suggest an explanation of the fact that two statesmen who towered above all their contemporaries in genius, who were devoted body and soul to the public service, who were on many points of a mind, and who for many years were engaged on the same side in the same battle against the reactionary Toryism of George III., still could never act together, and clearly looked upon each other with a suspicion amounting at times almost to antipathy. But though Mr. Lecky makes sensible remarks on the relation between Chatham and Burke, he does not make it in the least easier for his readers to realize what was the true character of the two men who, if they could have acted in unison, might, one is sometimes inclined to fancy, have changed the course both of English and of American history. No one, however, can paint what he cannot con-

ceive, and Mr. Lecky, with all his command of language, lacks imagination. He could describe the men of the past if he saw them, but he has not the gift, granted alike to Carlyle, to Froude, and to Macaulay, of seeing the dead as they appeared when alive.

A writer who is neither an investigator, nor a narrator, nor an artist may nevertheless do good work by bringing into view the general aspects—the salient features, so to speak—of a remarkable epoch. This is the service which we had expected from Mr. Lecky. In his "History of Rationalism" (by far the best book he has produced), and in the two first volumes of the present work, he displays ingenuity, fairness, and freshness of intellect. He is not exactly original, but he is not tied down to old formulas or received opinions. He can look at things for himself, and therefore has more than once proved that he can see matters which have escaped the attention of better-informed but less open-minded inquirers. There was therefore good reason to hope that we should at any rate get from him a fresh view of the reign of George III. In this hope we have been to a great extent disappointed.

What makes it something like a moral obligation on the part of a friendly critic to warn Mr. Lecky of his mistake in attempting a consecutive narrative of the annals of England during the eighteenth century, is the fact that our author's endeavor to achieve what he cannot accomplish all but hinders him from performing the work for which he is, so to speak, created. The last two volumes of Mr. Lecky's book are hardly equal to the first two; they contain nothing so good in its way as his account of Methodism. Nevertheless, like everything he writes, they exhibit to all attentive critics his unmistakable aptitude for the work of historical essay-writing—an aptitude beyond that of any living English writer. His merits are seen far more clearly in the episodes than in the main course of his narrative. Few things are better than his description of the Gordon riots. If he could have expanded the whole into an essay, he would, without doubt, have thrown most interesting light upon three closely-connected topics to which, as it is, he can scarcely do more than casually allude—namely, the fanaticism and ignorance, a century ago, of the English populace; the weakness of the central Government; and the very great risk incurred by the country during the first twenty-five years of George III. of being drawn into a revolutionary crisis like that which overwhelmed France in 1789. The following picture of the great riots is eminently suggestive. The reader who peruses it must remember that whole districts of London were at the moment lurid with the flames of burning chapels and houses, and were resounding with the shouts of a drunken mob.

"Strange to say, in the unmolested parts of the town the ordinary amusements still went on: and Horace Walpole notices that on this dreadful night Lady Ailesbury was at the play in the Haymarket, and that his four nieces were with the Duke of Gloucester at Ranelagh. The night was fortunately very calm, and the sky was clear and glowing with the reflected flames, save where dark volumes of ascending smoke from time to time overspread it. The streets in the quarters where the riot was at its height were thronged with idle spectators—many of them women with infants in their arms—gazing on the scene, and mixing with terror-stricken fugitives who were endeavoring to save some portion of their property. Spectators were, in most places, in little danger, for the rioters were busily engaged, and they might be distinctly seen by the glare of the flames pursuing their work of plunder and demolition, for the most part entirely undisturbed, in the midst of the burning houses. Wraxall went through a great part of the disturbed district on foot, without the smallest hindrance; and he noticed that, as he stood with his companions by the wall of St.

Andrew's church-yard, near the spot where the fiercest conflagration was raging, a watchman with a lantern in his hand passed by, calling the hour as in a time of profound tranquillity" (vol. iii., p. 562).

Change a few names, and the picture of London in 1780 might very well be the picture of Paris in 1789 or in 1791. In each case there is the same mixture of frivolity and of horrors; in each case respectable men stand by and view the violence of the "people" with the calmness of apathy or of sympathy; in each case the mob act with an order and system which seem almost to argue discipline and leadership, while the troops are inactive because their commanders are full of hesitation and of uncertainty. Nor does the likeness between the English riots of 1780 and the Parisian riots of 1789 consist wholly in the superficial and external circumstances of the moment. From the accession of George III. down to the end of the American war there existed among large classes exactly that state of feeling which in modern times we call revolutionary. Junius, Wilkes, Horne Tooke, and a thousand forgotten demagogues and libellers rose to an influence which their class has constantly possessed in France, and has but very rarely possessed in England. Nothing more brutal was ever said, or written, or believed about Marie Antoinette than was said, written, and believed about George's mother. In England, again, as in France, the turbulence of the mob and the insane suspicions of the populace derived half their importance from the fact that men of weight and of worth thought hardly better of the policy of the Court than did the electors who cheered Wilkes because he had libelled the King and the King's Ministers.

If Mr. Lecky had followed out fully the suggestive hints which he lets fall as to the condition of feeling in England, he would have done work of great importance, well worthy of his high talents and of his deserved reputation. As it is, we have a poor history, interspersed with suggestions for more than one admirable essay. In one instance at least Mr. Lecky fairly follows out the true bent of his genius. He gives an account of the war with the American colonies which may rightly be called a first-rate essay on the causes and the character of the revolt by the colonists against Great Britain. That his conclusions are in every respect sound we cannot assert. Their general result may be fairly enough stated in a very few words. The incompetence, the blundering, and the shortsightedness of George and his Ministers, and of the mass of the English people by whom they were supported, do not admit of exaggeration. The high character of certain leaders on the American side—and notably of Washington—becomes the more visible the more closely the details of the struggle for independence are explored. On the other hand, the oppression exercised by England in the colonies was not of the kind which drives men to madness. In the earlier stages of the dispute popular feeling was obviously against a final breach with the mother country; and up to the very end of the contest there was a very large and influential minority throughout the insurgent colonies in favor of England. There is, therefore, on Mr. Lecky's view, no reason to suppose that the attempt to maintain the unbroken unity of the British Empire was in itself destined from the first to failure. An English general of genius—a Wellington or a Clive—might, in his opinion, have given to the policy of George III. at least a temporary success. Mr. Lecky's pages are written in a spirit of the most impartial fairness, and, we may add, of keen sympathy with the results of the Revolution. But to this part of his work we may return.

SEWALL'S DIARY.—II.

Diary of Samuel Sewall, 1674-1729. Vol. III. 1714-1729. Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. vii. Fifth Series. [See Nation, Nos. 696, 697, 765, 766.]

We have already remarked that this volume of 'Sewall's Diary' contains very little which is illustrative of times and manners, and scarcely anything of historical value. Especially is the last true, and it is really surprising that a man who held the high office that Sewall did could have kept a regular journal for fifteen years, and yet noted down so few items of public interest in it. It is true it was a commonplace period. That, however, Sewall probably did not realize. Meanwhile questions, such as they were, did arise and occupied men's minds. The Legislature of the Province—composed of genuine Yankees, men "of small fortunes and mean education," to use the language of Shute's memorial to George I. in 1723—this Legislature was engaged in a perpetual warfare on the royal Governor. It was a paper-money period. It was a period of continuous Indian warfare. Of these public issues, and of the actions and utterances of the public men of the day in regard to them, we get from the diary nothing that is valuable, and little that is new.

Neither is it very much better as respects life and manners. In this respect, the third volume gives us nothing which was not to be found in the two already published. The Chief Justice still went on pleasantly noting the exact day in April when by their arrival the "swallows proclaim the spring"; and especially does he record on every Christmas day that no notice whatever is taken of it, but "The Shops were open, and Carts came to town with Wood, Hoop-poles, Hay, &c., as at other times." The question of publicly observing the 25th of December came up, indeed, for the first time in Massachusetts, as we find by the diary, in 1722. It was three days only before Shute, thoroughly worn out by his contest with the Legislature, slipped away without any formal leave-taking and returned to England. On December 19 he took Sewall aside in the Council Chamber and spoke to him about adjourning the General Court over "because of Christmas." As he himself would have said, the Chief Justice was a man "antiquis moribus, præsca fide." The Governor could not have touched him on a tenderer point. Not to observe Christmas had since 1621 been a cardinal point in the Massachusetts creed. Sewall never lost an occasion for calling this to mind. On April 1, 1719, for instance, he characteristically records: "In the morning I dehorted Sam Hirst and Grindal Rawson from playing Idle Tricks because 'twas first of April; they were the greatest fools that did so. New England men came hither to avoid anniversary days, the keeping of them, such as the 25th of Decr. How displeasing must it be to God, the giver of our Time, to keep anniversary days to play the fool with ourselves and others." So now, when Governor Shute suggested the actual recognition of Christmas by an adjournment of the Legislature, the Chief Justice could only say that he "would consider of it." Two days later the suggestion took a formal shape. The Governor absolutely propounded it to the Council. A warm discussion ensued, during which "Col. Taylor spake so loud and boisterously for Adjourning that 'twas hard for any to put in a word." Finally Sewall stood up and declared that "the Dissenters came a great way for their Liberties, and now the Church [the Episcopalians] had theirs; yet they could not be contented except they might Tread all others down." No vote seems to have been taken, but the next day the Governor, who had announced himself as "the

Church of England," took advantage of his prerogative and adjourned the court over to Wednesday, Christmas falling on Tuesday. So on Tuesday the Chief Justice grimly saw fit "to stay at home and not go to Roxbury Lecture," which might have savored of an observance of the day, but instead thereof, "Visited my old friend and carpenter, Peter Weare, but found him gone to heaven."

A few other passages throw curious gleams of light on manners. The following is one of them, the scene being the church in the little village of Rehoboth, on the Rhode Island line, where the Chief Justice was holding court:

"Sepr. 9, [1716] Lord's Day, Mr. Greenwood preached very well. Afternoon call'd William Brown and Elizabeth his wife to present themselves. They stood in the Fore-Ally and were admitted, Confessing their Sin of Fornication."

There is another and longer entry, under date of May 14, 1716, which illustrates strikingly the religious severity of the time. Two young merchants, having a ship ready to sail from Portsmouth, set out to go there from Salem one Sunday morning. Sewall was then going the Circuit and chanced to be at Newbury. He says:

"In the evening I had an inkling that two Merchants came from Ipswich. I said, How shall I do to avoid fining them. I examined Richard Gerrish [one of the two]. As I understood him, they lodg'd at Major Epes's on Satterday night, and went to the publick Worship there; and when the Afternoon Exercise was over, came to Newbury. They Travailed not in Service Time: and had a Ship at Portsmouth ready to sail which wanted their Dispatches. . . . I consulted with Col. Thomas, who inclin'd to admonish them as young, and strangers, and let them go."

"NEWBURY, May 14, 1716.—By long and by late I spoke with Mr. Richard Gerrish, jun'r, and Mr. Peter La Blond [the other young merchant], by whom I understand they were at Mr. Wigglesworth in the morning and at Ipswich Meeting in the afternoon. Being in a strait, I had pray'd to God to direct. I considered that Col. Thomas was not a Justice there; that this Profanation of the Sabbath was very great; and the Transgressors fleeing from Town to Town and County to County could rarely be censured. . . . I came to this Resolution, that if they would make such a submission as this I would let them pass, viz.: We do acknowledge our Transgressions of the Law in Travailing upon the Lord's Day, May 13, 1716. And do promise not to offend in the like kind hereafter, as witness our hands.

"RICHARD GERRISH.

"PETER LA BLOND.

"This offer they rejected with some Disdain, and Mr. La Blond paid me a 30s. and 10s. Bill of Credit for both their Fines."

Under such circumstances as these it was small matter for surprise that a strong under-current of anti-religious protest existed. It certainly did exist, and sometimes manifested itself in unexpected ways. For instance, on January 8, 1717, the church in question being apparently the Old South, Sewall records:

"'Tis sad it should be so, but a virulent Libel was starch'd on upon the Three Doors of the Meeting House, containing the following Words:

TO ALL TRUE-HEARTED CHRISTIANS.

"Good people, within this House, this very day, A canting Crew will meet to fast and pray, Just as the miser fasts with greedy mind, to spare; So the glutton fasts, to eat a greater share, But the sower-headed Presbyterians fast to seem more holy,

And their Canting Ministers to punish sinfull foly."

The volume as a whole, however, as we have already said, is a record not of incidents even such as these, but of the grotesque details of the old man's courtings. His first wife died on the 19th of October, 1717—"Whereby," he records, "the Chamber was fill'd with a Flood of Tears. God is teaching me a new Lesson: to live a Widower's Life." The lesson seems to have been very imperfectly learned, for just three months and a half afterward, the old gentleman, being then hard on sixty-six, was already casting amorous eyes on Madam Wait Winthrop, who had been a widow three weeks less time than he

had been a widower, to wit: two months and twenty seven days. Mrs. Winthrop was then fifty-four. Presently in 1719 he married the widow Tilley, and she suddenly expired, "to our great astonishment, especially mine," on May 26, 1720. On the first day of the following October, being then sixty-eight years and six months old, and just four months a widower, Sewall goes round to see Madam Winthrop, and begins another courtship by telling her: "My loving wife died so soon and suddenly, 'twas hardly convenient for me to think of Marrying again; however I came to this Resolution, that I would not make my Court to any person without first Consulting with her."

This courtship, which never resulted in marriage, was first begun, by the way, in a highly characteristic manner. The Chief Justice thus records it:

"Febr. 3, 2, [1718]. I sent Madam Winthrop, Smoking Flax Inflamed, the Jewish Children of Berlin, and my small vial of Tears, by Mr. Gerrish, with my service: She thanks me, and returns her Service to me."

These were all theological tracts of the time, such as Sewall was in the custom of showering about him on special occasions; but, under the circumstances, "Smoking Flax Inflamed" was certainly a happy selection. Three days later comes the following:

"Febr. 6. This morning wondering in my mind whether to live a Single or a Married Life; I had a sweet and very affectionate Meditation Concerning the Lord Jesus; Nothing was to be objected against his Person, Parentage, Relations, Estate, House, Howe! Why did I not resolutely, presently close with him! And I cry'd mightily to God that He would help me so to doe."

It would have been well for Sewall if the help thus "mighty'd cry'd" for had been vouchsafed to him, for the old man, it would seem, must have turned in his grave, and his ashes cried out against the vandal-like desecration which was wrought, when, a century and a half later, every ludicrous detail of what afterwards took place was set forth in print:

"Proclaim the faults he would not show;
Break lock and seal; betray the trust;
Keep nothing sacred; 'tis but just
The many-headed beast should know."

Into the details of Chief Justice Sewall's numerous courtships in his old age we do not, for reasons already given, propose to enter. They are certainly graphic and entertaining enough, and they are now common property; but they were not written to be printed, and his descendants never should have allowed them to pass out of their possession. The thing has been done, however, and the poor old man stands before posterity in a way no other man ever stood. The picture, however entertaining, is not a pleasant one, and we shall not reproduce it. Those who wish to study it can do so by consulting the volume before us, more especially between pages 262 and 276.

RECENT BOOKS ON THE AZORES.

THE literature relating to the Azores is so very scanty—having been comprised until lately, so far as the English language is concerned, in three or four books and a few magazine articles—that the simultaneous addition to it of two readable works, within a month, is certainly a fact worth noting. It is fortunate that these two are so essentially different as to help rather than hinder each other. One is by a shrewd journalist, the other by a keen-eyed woman. The lady's book is unquestionably the better of the two—better planned, embracing better material, and better handled; it is also better printed, and more attractive to the eye; and, although the book of her male rival is illustrated

(as we are twice informed on the cover), yet the illustrations are so cheap and poor as to add little to its value. But both works have their merits, and either will inspire a wish to make personal acquaintance with the quaint, unchanging, semi-tropical, half-Moorish "Western Islands," or Azores.

Mr. Lyman H. Weeks's 'Among the Azores' (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.) appeared originally in the form of letters to the Boston *Traveler* and *Herald* and other journals. In his capacity of reporter, Mr. Weeks has visited the smaller islands of the group as well as the larger, and has well portrayed their narrow and weary stagnation of existence—a thing picturesque and even fascinating for a few days to the untravelled American, and after that time inexpressibly wearisome. The author is also a botanist, or his Azorean life has made him such, and he gives us the scientific names, and sometimes the descriptions, of the beautiful ferns which are the glory of the wild Azorean flora; and he also depicts with some minuteness the world-famous gardens of San Miguel. All that can be done by English gardeners, transferred to a semi-tropical climate and furnished with almost unlimited means, has been done at Ponta-Delgada. Shrubs, trees, and herbaceous plants have been imported from Africa, Asia, Australia, and America: it is what might be called, in the modern phrase, cosmic horticulture. There are ferns twenty feet high growing in grottos; there are a hundred varieties of camellia in a single garden; there is the beautiful Norfolk Island pine; the traveller's-tree from Madagascar; the Australian *Banksia*, lifting its heads of red and yellow flowers fifty feet in air. The garden of Senhor de Canto exhibits two hundred and fifty varieties of magnolia, and more than four thousand very rare exotics. Kew Gardens, in England, do not at all equal these more southern paradises; and one looks beyond them all, it must be remembered, upon the glorious background of the ocean. Mr. Weeks has a keen eye, not for flowers alone, but for local habits and traditions; but either he or his proof-readers must be sometimes careless about their Portuguese, or they would not give us *fas favour* for *faca favor* (p. 104), and *carapuca* for *carapuça* (p. 143)—this being the name for the curious horned hat of the San Miguel peasants. The author neglects his accents, too, and his José becomes almost always Jose. One of the best passages in the book is the sketch of an Azorean post-office, with the long and patient waiting of the people, and the extraordinary arrangement of the letters. It takes nearly all day to distribute the mail, however small, and the final delivery is thus effected:

"First the mail for the Custom-house, the civic governor, the military commandant, the captain of the post, and other important functionaries is handed, in neatly arranged packages, to messengers in waiting. The rest of the mail is arranged in alphabetical order, not, however, by the family, but by the baptismal names. Under A come all the Antonios, under J the José's, and so on. Commencing with A, the clerk begins to read, in a slow, monotonous tone, all the addresses in regular order, something like this: 'Antonio Joaquim, Antonio José de Silva, Antonio Ignatio Roderigues, Affonso Leopoldino de Almeida, Affonso Constantina Seza de Freitas.' A is always a long list, for the Antonios are numerous; F is large, for there are the Franciscos; J has a lengthy roll of José's and Joãos; and M contains the Manuels and Miguels. The other letters of the alphabet are less fruitful, but if you happen to be so unfortunate as to be called Zachariah, Zebudiah, or some kindred name, the tantalization will be perfect.

"Standing in this steaming, smoking, sweltering, jostling crowd during all this alphabetical harangue is not conducive to good humor, or to an admiration of Portuguese official methods; but habitués soon become marvellously proficient in calculating when their letter is to be called. When the office is first opened, only the A's fill

the room; presently these begin to fall out, and the others take their places, until shortly the A's are all gone and the F's are in the majority; these in turn give way to the J's, who have been gradually dropping in, and who by and by yield to the M's; and so the work proceeds until the whole mail has been read over" (pp. 103-4).

Miss C. Alice Baker's 'A Summer in the Azores, with a Glimpse of Madeira' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) is a book of more delicate literary execution than that just described. Miss Baker is an eminent teacher, well known also for her lectures on American history; yet her little book is never oppressively didactic, and she has the activity and eager spirits which are said to characterize those of her profession when on a vacation trip. Her descriptions of Fayal, which is the Azorean island mainly interesting to Americans, are far more ample and satisfactory than those of Mr. Weeks; and this not so much from greater opportunities as from a better observing faculty. Each of them, for instance, spent a day in making the excursion to the *Caldeira*, or crater, in the centre of the island, but Miss Baker makes twice as much of it. Her delineations of street-life in Horta, the capital of Fayal, are by far the best, and it is the same with peasant life; and she gives rather more detailed information as to ways of living and prices of labor—points of some interest where the best dressmakers earn but twelve cents a day, and milk-maids eight cents (p. 60). It must be said, however, that neither writer adds anything to our knowledge of the curious inscriptions, in an alphabet not yet identified, which are to be found in some of the rural churches on the island of Fayal.

One of the most unquestionable traits in Miss Baker is a very uncommon talent for telling a story. We have rarely read anything in its way better than her narrative, as taken down from a sailor's lips, of the rescue of Boyle O'Reilly from Australia. Every touch tells, and not a word is wasted. We have no room to quote it (pp. 17-23), nor even to give the tale of the sea-captain's wife who saved her husband's life with warm plates (pp. 170-1), but we must spare space for an anecdote and a description. The anecdote is of the wife of a whaling-captain, who put in at Fayal and was the guest of the ever-hospitable American consul, Mr. Dabney. The Consul's wife, seeing the good woman sitting bolt upright for a long time in a straight-backed chair, kindly urged her to lie down upon a couch and rest. "No, I thank you," was the reply. "I've been a layin' for six months, and I think I'd rather set a spell" (p. 172). This may serve as a companion-picture to that of the monk in 'Hypatia,' who, after a week's boat-journey on the Nile, declines the primate's invitation to take a chair at Alexandria, and prefers to remain standing, inasmuch as "of sitting, as of all carnal pleasures, cometh satiety at the last." As to the description which we propose to quote from Miss Baker's book, it relates to an extraordinary mode of "coasting," or sliding down hill, which prevails in the excessively steep streets of Madeira:

"The sled holds two people, and is like the *carro* [sledge] cut in halves—a wicker body on low wooden runners, projecting a little, and rounded at both ends, to prevent accident. Two men guide each sled. A stout rope extends from the point of each runner to the hand of the guide on either side.

"The steep street, which is paved with small beach-stones set on their edges, and is worn flat and polished by the constant passage of *carro* and sled, is unusually slippery to-day after the rain. The men dare not give the sled her head. It is very dangerous. With one hand firmly on the back of the sled, the other grasping the rope, they plant their bare feet squarely on the smooth pavement, and brace back with all their strength. Their pose and action are superb. One man falls, and is dragged some distance, but manfully clings to the rope, and keeps us in the track. We go very slowly, but to us novices it seems quite

fast enough. We coast under trellises arching from wall to wall, between which the road winds. Some of these trellises are covered with great masses of bougainvillia in full bloom; others bear squash-vines with immense squashes supported by straps. Lower down, men are picking huge clusters of purple and white grapes, and drop them down into the sledge for us to eat as we go.

"At last we reach the rain-level; the guides put on their shoes, and then the fearful race begins. Running a little way, till the sled acquires a momentum, the guides then jump upon the hind-ends of the runners, where they stand on one foot, guiding the sled by the ropes and the free foot. There are four sleds. The runners of those ahead of us smoke, and smell of burning wood. We hold our breath, and, frightened, clutch each other's hands. Our speed is terrific. To our horror, we in the last sled, being a little behind the rest, see a lady on horseback slowly advancing up the hill. It seems impossible for us to pass her safely, even if she hugs the wall and her horse be quiet. It takes but an instant to see that he is not quiet, and that the approaching sled terrifies him. In an instant a lifetime is lived. There is a dreadful vision of three women killed or mangled; one, still more to be pitied, spared to tell the tale at home. Just as we reach them, the horse pulls away from his leader, turns his nose to the wall, his hind-quarters to the sled. We cower, throw ourselves far over to the other track. She and we are safe! Not a shrick nor a word has escaped any of us, but the two in the sled are faint and exhausted from the impending peril. A few more dizzy zigzags, and we are at the bottom. Fifteen minutes' coasting, including one or two stops, brrr!—finished what we were two hours and a half doing on horseback" (pp. 161-3).

Bright Days in the Old Plantation Time. By Mary Ross Banks. Illustrated by James H. Moser. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

THIS volume purports to be a narrative of the adventures of a little girl on a Southern plantation before the war. The conception is excellent, but it is loosely carried out. The self-consciousness of the author leads to a painful elaboration of details that are trifling and unimportant. The interest centres in the contrast between the little girl and the house-servant, a negro woman named Bet. Whenever these two are brought together the general looseness of style and intention disappears, and we are presented with a very vivid picture of the relations that existed between the negroes and the children of their masters. That there is a reasonable basis for such a picture is a tribute, not to slavery or to any of its results, but to the character of the negroes themselves. From every part of the South comes testimony to the effect that the faithfulness of the colored people to the families of their masters was based, not upon ignorance and thoughtlessness, but upon an affection more remarkable than any that has hitherto been chronicled in history or romance. There are occasional touches of character-drawing here and there in the book that are exceedingly vigorous; indeed, in contrast to the inconstancy by which they are surrounded, they are surprisingly vivid.

Perhaps it would be well to take the negro dialect on trust. Occasionally it is strikingly written, but it is not systematic. The lapses, occurring always at a critical moment, are characterized by an almost entire absence of that happy assimilation of thought and word, idea and expression, which is the secret of all dialect-writing. The negro dialect is something more than a mere jumble of curiously-spelled words. It is full of humor, and of that humble impulsive which has been so grossly misunderstood and misrepresented by the great majority of those who have attempted to convey the negro character into literature. Moreover, the dialect has a tone of its own: its words, its expressions, or its humor may vary with individuals, but its tone remains the same. It is the same in the dialect of the Atlantic coast and Sea Islands as in

the dialect of the cotton and tobacco plantations: the methods are different, but the tone—the spirit—remains identical. Is it likely that a negro woman on a plantation, before the war, would have said: "I wan' ter 'gin de prepperashuns fur de 'tainment"? Is it likely that the leader of ceremonies at a plantation corn-shucking, before the war, would have exclaimed: "Come, boys, le's sing sumpin' suiterble ter de 'cashun. You'z all got on too much steam. Le's blow our whissels, er some our b'ilers mought bust"? It is possible, of course, that such expressions might have been used; but are they characteristic, are they typical? The fact that the ideas conveyed are sometimes in contrast with the words employed, gives to some of the negro talk a curious and not uninteresting flavor of the cracker dialect reproduced by such writers as Longstreet, Thompson, and Baldwin. Of the songs given, "Way in de Kingdom" is one of the most characteristic spirituals we have ever seen. A play-song, "I'z in dis lady's gyardin," lacks the refrain-chorus of "Hol' de keys, ladies, hol' de keys." But has this song a negro origin? If so, how about

"Come under, come under,
My honey, my love, my own true love,
My heart's been a-weeping
This long time for thee?"

Even on the Sea Islands, where contact between the two races has been comparatively limited, the negroes have borrowed a number of folk-songs from the whites. They have also appropriated many of the signs and omens that belong to the lore of the whites.

Mrs. Banks has missed writing an important book not because her style is crude and her methods inartistic, but because she has failed to avail herself of the vast mass of material lying, so to speak, at her elbow.

The Boundary Disputes of Connecticut. By Clarence Winthrop Bowen. "Sunt certi denique fines, Quos ultra citraque nequit consistere rectum." Boston: Jas. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 4to, pp. 90. Portrait and 17 maps.

THE god Terminus seems to have wreaked a cruel vengeance upon the Puritan commonwealth which had despised his authority and dispensed with his services. He hopelessly confounded "the ancient landmarks which the fathers had set"; so that from the building of the first house in Connecticut, in 1633, it was two hundred and forty-seven years before any one could positively lay down the boundaries of colony or State. The story of this long uncertainty, of the diplomatic negotiations, the controversies in the royal courts, the violent assertions of jurisdiction on the one hand, and the violent resistance to it on the other, is the subject of Mr. Bowen's superb volume. He has rendered a substantial service by the laborious thoroughness with which he has explored not only the very numerous publications which constitute the existing library of Connecticut's history, but also the inedited original documents of that history. These sources are faithfully indicated in abundant foot-notes; and many of them are reproduced for the first time in the form of several of the maps with which the book is so amply illustrated. By these helps, not less than by the text, it is made easy to see how the eccentric zigzag which deforms the western boundary at its southern end, and how the two strange notches which break the northern boundary near the middle came to be the outline of the State. The means by which Long Island, and almost all that was not mainland, although once belonging to Connecticut, was wrested from it, so that now the State is bounded on the south, and almost, for a little distance, on the east, by New York, is also made plain. And it will not be remarkable if Mr.

Bowen's condensed and unpretentious narrative shall leave upon any mind the impression that the little colony and State suffered the usual fate of the weaker in its controversies with New York and Massachusetts, and only got its rights when it had to do with a still weaker power that adjoined it on the east.

It must be added, however, in fairness, that the book is so good that it ought to be better. Its utility would have been none the less if, to the publisher's splendid letter-press and lavish illustrations, the author had contributed the graces of a literary elegance which perhaps may come to him with years and experience. "The Mohegan lands, which included the old Pequot country and (dependent upon which by right of conquest) the Wabbaquasset or Nipmuck country" (p. 25), is a startling bit of rhetoric. One is puzzled to know how Long Island (which is some twenty miles wide) could ever have been "the southern boundary" of Connecticut (p. 28); and yet the writer means that the Island was part of the colony. "This claim . . . was called by Rhode Island 'a legalized robbery,' and had been 'procured by an underhand dealing'" (p. 34); although the author only means to state the Rhode Islander's complaint. It is an odd anachronism to speak of the Province of Massachusetts and the Colony of Connecticut, in the seventeenth century, as "States" (pp. 36, 38, 61, 72). It was not in 1637 (p. 15), but on the 15th of April, 1638, that the settlement at New Haven began.

It would have been quite germane to the subject of Mr. Bowen's book if he had given a reasonably full account of the proceedings, in a Federal court specially constituted for the purpose, by which the Connecticut claim to jurisdiction over the northern part of Pennsylvania was finally terminated. The curious story of that claim, arising out of a grant running west to the Pacific Ocean, under which delegates used to be sent from Pennsylvania to the Connecticut General Assembly, is disposed of here in a few lines. But the volume partakes so much, in the splendor with which it is offered to the public, of the character of a gift, that the popular adage upon that subject may well preclude unfavorable criticism.

From Sword to Share; or, A Fortune in Five Years at Hawaii. By Capt. H. Whaley Nicholson. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 12mo, pp. xix.-348.

CAPTAIN NICHOLSON is an English Army officer, who has recently spent a year or so in the Hawaiian Islands, and who undertakes to show how a comfortable fortune may be made in five years on an investment of £1,500 in the sugar culture. His own abandonment of the "sword" for the "share" was quite too brief for any such desirable result in his own case; but as this circumstance is not made evident in his very readable but misleading book, we shall be able to render a cautionary service by revising his estimates.

"From Sword to Share" is intended to prove the following proposition: that any intelligent and active person who will start for Honolulu with the £1,500 in his pocket, and who will raise four crops of sugar, beginning with fifty acres on rent at half shares of the produce, and adding fifty acres annually to his farm, will at the end of that time have £7,750 clear profits, in addition to his plant (£650) and maintenance (£600) for five years on the plantation. We give an abstract of the figures by which this desirable result is made to appear: During the first fifteen months of residence the whole capital of £1,500 is invested in travelling expenses, implements, buildings, wages, and maintenance. The profits then come in on paper as follows:

First crop.—Half share of produce from 50 acres plant canes, at 3 tons per acre (net price in San Francisco, £1,650). Net profit.....	£150
Second crop.—50 acres rattoon canes, 50 acres plant canes. Net profit.....	1,350
Third crop.—100 acres plant cane, 50 acres rattoons. Net profit.....	2,500
Fourth crop.—100 acres plant, 100 rattoons. Net profit.....	3,750

Total profit over and above maintenance..... £7,750
This sum includes the cost of the plant (houses, implements, etc.) referred to above. What the fortune of the sugar-grower would be after ten or twenty years' residence is left to the imagination.

The above estimate is a very alluring one, and it has a definiteness which will very likely tempt half-pay officers and others to follow Captain Nicholson's advice. While wishing them all success, we must make two corrections of the first importance in his estimates. And first, Captain Nicholson estimates that the rattoon-cane, or that which grows spontaneously during the second year from the roots of the cut plant-cane, will yield as heavy a crop as the latter. The fact is, that it cannot be depended upon to yield more than a half crop. This error is one which could not have been committed by a planter, and it makes our author's estimate of profits about thirty per cent. too high, even on theory. Captain Nicholson's second error is equally unpractical: he overlooks entirely the actual results of the Hawaiian planter's experience up to the present time. Substantially, they are as follows: There are now at the Islands fifty-one plantations owning their own mills, and twenty-two planters who own no mills, but send out

their crop to be ground. A considerable number of both these classes of planters are in a fair way to make money, but only a few have made money as yet. The great majority of the planters on shares, so far from getting back their investment from the first crop, are still in debt. Of the whole number of plantations, not more than ten are yet unembarrassed and in a paying condition; and not one has ever borne out, thus far, the glowing estimates of Captain Nicholson. But, on the other hand, there can be little doubt that the investment of a moderate capital in Hawaiian sugar-planting by a person who has a knowledge of the business, and the energy to supervise its practical details, offers at the present moment (thanks to the Hawaiian Treaty) a favorable opportunity of profit. The amount of sugar exported from the Islands is still small, and it finds a ready market in San Francisco. The yield per acre (three to six, or even, in favored localities, seven tons) exceeds that of any other sugar-growing country; and the improved processes of irrigation now in use have removed the chief source of detriment to the Hawaiian sugar-crops, that of drought. We do not know how many soldiers the author's country might spare at present, but it is safe to say that a considerable number of energetic persons might venture the change from shop to "share" in Hawaii with a fair chance of success.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abel, C. *Linguistic Essays*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Allen, J. W., Jr. *Paul Dreifuss: His Holiday Abroad*. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. \$1.
Annual Register: a Review of Public Events at Home and Abroad for the Year 1881. London: Rivingtons.
Bugge, Prof. S. *Studien über die Entstehung der nordischen Götter- und Heldenagen*. First series, Part 2. Munich: Christian Kaiser; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Besant, W., and Rice, J. "So They were Married." Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Blackie, J. S. *Altavona: Fact and Fiction from My Life in the Highlands*. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
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